



**Principles of
Elementary Education**

Principles of Elementary Education

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Revised Edition

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Preface

This book presents an introductory overview of the field of elementary education. Its primary purpose is to orient the reader to fundamental issues, ideas, and concepts regarding the education of children of elementary school age. Although the authors, in writing this volume, had in mind as readers primarily college undergraduates taking their beginning course in elementary education, they hope that the book will also be helpful to teachers, principals, and supervisors in service who wish to re-examine their own convictions and practices and to compare them with modern concepts in elementary education.

In preparing the manuscript the authors tried to integrate their thinking about the essential features of a good elementary school of today and their ideas about effective ways of educating teachers and prospective teachers in the professional field of teaching in elementary schools. The first of these objectives is reflected in the content of the chapters that comprise the book; the second, in the organization of the book, the way in which it is written, the chapter summaries, the recommended additional readings, and the suggested student activities.

Further explanation should be made about the latter features. The activity principle in learning has been well established. At all age levels one's new learnings are built upon and into one's previous learnings. Personal experiencing through a variety of activities, reflective thinking, and a reconstruction of experience through reading and discussion are essential elements of any good learning program. These features should be incorporated in teacher-preparation curriculums.

It would be presumptuous and preposterous for the authors to pretend that theirs is the only effective program for the education of teachers. Certainly no such claim is held for this book. The authors

have, however, tried to incorporate into it a variety of suggestions that, if utilized, will assist in putting into operation the activity principle in learning.

The chief purpose of the first chapter is to introduce the reader to several modern elementary schools operated under varying circumstances in different parts of the United States. Every desirable feature of an up-to-date elementary school is not found in these narratives; yet the narratives, taken as a group, reflect enough of the best features of today's best schools so that the reader feels that he is dealing with reality rather than with imaginary ideas and practices concocted in the minds of the authors. A careful reading of the first chapter should help to give reality, tangibility, and meaningfulness to the content of subsequent chapters.

Each chapter summary is designed as a synthesis of the main ideas developed in the chapter. In an effort to help the reader generalize his insights and information, each chapter concludes with a list of the basic ideas developed in the chapter. For convenience these summarizing statements may be thought of as generalizations. The chief reason for identifying these summarizing statements is to help the reader to concentrate upon basic ideas and generalizations. Altogether 116 major ideas are listed.

At the end of each chapter several student activities are suggested. In the book as a whole sixty-two such activities are indicated. The list includes a wide variety of types of activities, such as visiting a child in his home and observing his activities, interviewing children of different ages, reading some of the comic magazines commonly read by children, viewing educational films and filmstrips, reading selected portions of elementary school textbooks and library books, examining local and state courses of study, finding out the essential features of the local state retirement, tenure, and teacher-certification laws, inviting an experienced teacher and an experienced principal to meet with the class, making several visits to elementary schools to observe specific aspects of the program, and applying generalizations from the text to the solution of typical problems. The purpose behind these suggested student activities is to bring reality and meaning to the topics presented in the text and discussed in class. In the lists of recommended additional reading which are also found at the end of each chapter, the reader is brought into contact with relevant studies in elementary education. All the references for additional reading are to books that are likely to be available in any college library. Other selected references appear in the Selected Readings by chapters, at the end of the book.

Although the first edition of this text found a generous reception

among college teachers and their students, it is hoped that the present edition will prove to be even more useful to them. The major burden for the revision was carried by the junior authors, who were invited by the senior author to join him in the revision. The two junior authors have been using the text with college freshmen and sophomores for the past six years and could thus bring their own experiences and the reactions of their students to bear in the revision.

The authors take this opportunity to express their gratitude to the publishers who gave permission to quote from books published by them. In each instance full acknowledgment is made to the source of the quotation. The authors' appreciation is extended to those who gave generously of their time to provide the pictures and narratives for the first chapter. Their names appear in connection with each narrative.

THE AUTHORS

July, 1955

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PART **1**



Orientation



A Visit to Modern Elementary Schools

The majority of you who read this book are college students just beginning your preparation for a career of teaching. As you think of the *not-too-far-distant future* when you will be an elementary school teacher, you are probably wondering about many things: What are elementary schools of today like? What kinds of things go on in those modern buildings so different in outside appearance from the elementary schools of yesterday? You may even be wondering about elementary school children, since many of you have had little if any contact with young children except with younger brothers and sisters, nieces, nephews, or cousins. You may also be wondering about what will be expected of you as a teacher. It is the purpose of this book to give you answers to these and other questions you may have about the field of elementary education.

One of the best ways to answer your questions would be to take you to visit the school in which you will teach. However, you do not know where you will teach, in a small rural school or in a large city school, in the eastern or the western part of the United States. Since we cannot take you to visit the school in which you will one day teach, the best thing that we can do for you is to let you visit vicariously several schools of various types and sizes in widely scattered parts of the United States so that you will know something about all kinds of elementary schools. Although the visits reported in this chapter are imaginary ones, the schools are real schools and the facts about them are all true facts, for the information and photographs were furnished by the principals and teachers in these schools. You will

want to examine each photograph carefully; you can learn much about these schools from the pictures. Each of these schools was chosen for inclusion in this chapter because it was recommended by educational leaders in the several states as having a good modern program of elementary education.

As you read these descriptions and examine the photographs, you should pay special attention to (1) the general character of children's activities, (2) the similarities and differences in facilities and educational activities in schools in different geographical parts of the United States, and (3) the scope and character of the facilities required for a modern school program. You should also compare the elementary school in your own community with the six schools described in this chapter.

No doubt you will want to follow this imaginary visit to the six schools with a visit to several elementary schools in your own vicinity. Out of these visits you should get a somewhat realistic "feel" of elementary education today.

Chardon School

The first visit that we want to share with you is the one made to a one-teacher rural school in Kansas.¹ Perhaps many of you have never been in this type of school and it may be difficult for you to imagine one teacher handling seven grades at one time.

As we approached the white wooden structure (Plate 1), we saw the children and the teacher on the playground. The teacher left the ball game to greet us and introduce us to two of the mothers of the community who were at the school that day repairing library books. Then the teacher went back to the ball game while the mothers showed us the building. They were very enthusiastic about their school and assured us that all twenty-three families composing the farming community of Chardon were ardent supporters of the school, all of the families being represented in the P.T.A. They invited us to come back on Education Day if we really wanted to see how the entire community turns out to visit the school. Someone in our group asked how these two mothers happened to be at the school that day. They explained that they were the "school mothers" for that month; each month two mothers help out with anything that needs to be done at the school, including giving a school party in honor of the children who have birthdays in that month.

¹ The information concerning this school was provided by Mrs. Daphne McFadden, teacher of the school. The photographs were supplied by the school district.

In the building we did not tarry in the pleasant classroom since we planned to spend some time there after the children came in from their play period. Instead, we followed our guides through the other parts of the building. We were pleasantly surprised to see next to the classroom a washroom equipped with a wash basin with hot and cold water, paper towels, a medicine cabinet with mirrored front, and a drinking fountain. Our guides proudly called our attention to other modern features of the building, such as the two gas floor furnaces heating the classroom and the fluorescent lights. We next went to the basement, one part of which was used as a play area in bad weather and the other as a library. We were told that the school had a permanent library of 350 books and a traveling library borrowed for six months.

When the teacher and children came in, our guides returned to their book repairing and we looked around the classroom. The plastered walls painted green gave the room a cheerful atmosphere. The large storage cabinet was supplemented by wall cupboards with a linoleum-tile-covered countertop extending the full length of the wall. This countertop provided excellent space for displaying material and for centers of interest. We were fortunate to get a picture of some of the children while they were engrossed in the wonders of the aquarium and the terrariums in the science center (Plate 2).

You can get an idea of the equipment in this school by examining Plates 2 and 3. If you look carefully you can see the movable desks of varying heights, a primary table and chairs, folding chairs, two up-to-date sets of encyclopedias, a globe, and a complete set of wall maps. A filmstrip projector and a record player did not get into the picture. One of the children proudly showed us their large collection of records.

In Plate 3 we have tried to give you a picture of how children in such a school as this carry on independent work while the teacher is busy with a particular group. In this picture you see the teacher busy with a group of first-graders as they have a reading lesson. The other children have all settled down to work. The girl whom you see standing was duplicating the *Chardon News*, a monthly newspaper that is produced as a group project of the entire school. Several children were working at their desks. One of these children explained that they were working on their individual projects. At the beginning of the year each child had selected a project to be completed during the year. We could see that this was one way in which the teacher was caring for individual differences and also providing worth-while activities that would keep the children busy while she helped various groups. Whenever a child finished his assigned work and had some free time, he could work on his project.

There were evidences on the bulletin board and elsewhere that a study of their own state, Kansas, had been in progress. A pupil explained that a study of their own community had expanded into a study of Kansas. Seeing our interest in this phase of the work, the teacher suggested that the pupils tell us of some of the activities through which they had learned more about their state. All the pupils took part in this discussion since all grades had participated in some way in the project. Some pupils told of the visits from members of the community who had come to school to tell them about early days in Kansas, of trips made to nearby towns, and of the making of maps showing industries and crops of Kansas. Others told of the climax to their study—Kansas Day—when the children acted out the history of Kansas, having written their own dialogue and improvised their costumes.

In Plate 4 you see the first- and second-graders practicing addition and subtraction in a meaningful way as they buy stamps in the post office that they have built of orange crates.

As we left this one-teacher school, we had the feeling that the twenty-four pupils enrolled have educational opportunities comparable to those provided by much larger schools.

Hampshire Elementary School

Although there are still many rural schools in the United States, in some sections these rural schools are being consolidated with town schools, the children being transported from their homes to the schools in busses. In order that you college students might become acquainted with this type of school, we next visited the elementary school in Hampshire, a township of about one thousand population in northern Illinois.² We arrived at the school at noon and were surprised to see children getting out of busses at that time of day. As the principal greeted us, he explained that about 60 per cent of the children attending this school were from the rural district surrounding the town; so that these children could have a hot lunch, the school busses transported them, and any town children desiring transportation, across town to the high school cafeteria.

We were told that there were about two hundred children in the kindergarten and six grades of this school. We met the other six teachers; our host was the sixth-grade teacher who also served as principal of the school. We also met the music teacher, who was there

² The description and photographs of this school were supplied by Mr. John D. O'Connor, principal, and Miss Wilna Hamler, third-grade teacher.

for the day, and were told that her services as well as the services of an art teacher and a speech teacher were shared by the other four elementary schools in the school district. Since we could not visit all the rooms, we decided to visit a third grade and a sixth grade.

As we looked around the third-grade room we were immediately aware of an interest in stars. Large charts were at the front of the room listing questions about the stars. We were told that these questions had been suggested by the children. The children were working in groups and we went from group to group to see what they were doing. In one group the children were making miniature planetariums from coffee cans, each child making a constellation of Orion on the bottom of his can, using nails of different sizes to illustrate the different magnitudes of the stars (Plate 5). We overheard one child in this group remarking to the others: "Last Saturday Daddy, Mother, and I went to the planetarium in Chicago, and Orion looks just the same through our planetariums as it did through the big telescope there." In another group peepshows of the constellations were being made. In still another group the children were working on scrapbooks of clippings and pictures that had been brought by various members of the class. Some of the children showed us stories and poems they had written about the stars and "A Star Book," which had been written by their teacher. This booklet had been typed on a primer typewriter and duplicated in order that the children might have some reading material on their own reading level pertaining to the subject being studied. We regretted that we could not stay for their sharing period, but since we had only half a day at this school, we hurried on to the sixth-grade room.

The children were so engrossed in their work that they did not even look up when we entered the room. Two groups of children were on the floor working on what appeared to be large maps (Plate 6). Two other groups were putting figures on large charts. We were told by the teacher that in a short time an important reporting session was to be held as a part of the culmination of their current unit. While the children completed their preparation for this session, he gave us the following background information in order that we might understand the reports to be given.

It is our belief in this school that any program to be functional must be activated by the needs of the learners. During the study of other lands I discovered that my sixth-graders could not make comparisons of community life in other lands with community life in Hampshire because they did not know many things about their own community. I realized that I had been misled, as had many other middle-grade teachers, thinking that because the understanding of a community is so well begun in the primary grades the children will continue to grow in this understanding by them-

selves without any guidance from middle-grade teachers; I now know that such growth does not always take place.

After we had bogged down in our discussion of other communities and our own community, the group realized their need for knowing more about their own community. During this discussion period, many questions were raised about our own community. Some of these questions could be answered by someone in the group, but many could not. After facing the fact of how little they knew about their own community, the children suggested that they make a study of the community, beginning with Hampshire at the time they were born and comparing Hampshire community of 1942 with Hampshire of 1954. Once the problem was defined as "A Comparison of the Life and Growth of Hampshire from 1942 to 1954," a common goal was established and plans for carrying on this study were formulated. What they needed to know and how this information could be collected formed the basic discussion. Since about 60 per cent of the children are from rural areas and had always attended rural schools until the recent consolidation of these schools with the Hampshire School, they had many questions concerning town life, just as the town children had questions about rural life. It was finally decided that they would divide into two groups: rural children (18) and village children (15). Each group would give the other questions that they would like to have answered and each group would share information that they thought important. Immediately came the realization that neither group was well informed on village or rural life. Much had been taken for granted. The entire class decided that as a group they would make a questionnaire for rural children and another for town children. The questions would be a composite of what both groups thought important. Various methods for securing answers to these questions were suggested, including asking parents, inviting people in the community to come to the school, visiting libraries for histories of Hampshire and of Kane County, and consulting pictures and old newspapers.

Group organization began to emerge. Secretaries were selected for each group to keep an accurate record of all data collected. Everyone was responsible for collecting information and organizing and compiling it so that it would be meaningful. As information was collected, attention was given to the best way of reporting or sharing information. Many different ways were used. Each group selected the most important information it had received and made two large posters with the questions and answers. Good learning experiences arose in the tabulation of information. Some critical thinking had to be done to know whether or not the answers to some questions should be averaged or simply counted in order to be most meaningful. Much sharing has been done through explanation aided by demonstration and role playing. The town group has already made one report in which they explained the businesses in the town, illustrating their explanation with pictures they drew and with samples of products from industries.

While we were examining these pictures, the chairman of the group to report announced that they were ready to begin. We joined the children seated informally on the floor around a miniature farm that had been arranged in one corner of the room. The first report was given by the committees that had been tabulating the results of the questionnaires. These results were presented by means of large charts giving the questions and the answers (Plate 7). Next the committees that we had seen working on the maps earlier in the afternoon reported that both maps had been completed and were now on the bulletin board. One group had made a large map to scale of the town of Hampshire, locating on it the businesses, churches, and other places of interest. The other group had made a map of the rural area surrounding Hampshire so that the entire school district could be seen. These maps can be seen in the background of Plate 8. The main report of the afternoon was given by a group reporting on the leading agricultural pursuits of the community: grain farming, dairy farming, and cattle and hog raising. We learned the meaning of such terms as "rotation of crops," "contour plowing," and "strip cropping." The use of modern farm machinery was explained by means of demonstrations with models (Plate 8). We also learned the names of the breeds of cattle, hogs, and sheep raised near Hampshire. We found out that vast quantities of milk were shipped to Chicago daily from this area. While the children were examining the carefully labeled samples of grain and feed mixtures and were locating their own homes on the large maps, we followed the teacher to another part of the room to hear his comments concerning the values of this study.

The values of this study have been many. The children now know and appreciate the community of Hampshire. As we reviewed some of the countries that we had studied, the children were able to make good comparisons and to understand the problems of people of other lands. Other values have been in the changes that have taken place in the children themselves. Learning experiences have been many. Each day brought new problems that called for additional planning, evaluating, and revision of procedures. Skills in reading improved as search for information was carried on. There was a noticeable improvement in accuracy and neatness as results were written down. Creative writing flourished. Self-expression through art and construction was enjoyed. Ability to explain, interpret, and discuss greatly improved. The tape recordings of their sharing periods helped them to speak more clearly, carefully, and interestingly. New concepts developed, a concept of time being one example. Much progress was made in ability to work together. Consideration of others and self-confidence increased. New attitudes developed. Businesses and services were given more thought and a real appreciation of their community evolved.

One of the most gratifying results of this study is the fact that this is only a beginning. Now there is an interest in the water supply of Hampshire, wild-life conservation, for one farm has a wild-life preserve, the meat-packing industry, and the countries to which our excess farm products go. So you see we shall be busy for some time finding out about things that are of vital interest to the children of Hampshire.

Dismissal time interrupted the enthusiastic teacher and we left this school in which children are learning the fundamentals but are learning them in situations closely related to their everyday interests.

Horace C. Hurlbutt School

In many of our large cities in the United States parents are moving out to suburban communities in order that their children may have the advantages of growing up in small towns rather than in large cities. Some of you may teach in such suburban communities; hence a visit is included to the Horace C. Hurlbutt School¹ in Weston, Connecticut, a community of about 2,500 in population. Many of the men in this community commute to New York City, fifty miles away.

This school has a unique physical plant in that there are three buildings rather than one on the 25-acre campus. We have given you a picture of this school in Plate 9. In the background can be seen the Primary Unit, housing 200 children and nine teachers in the kindergarten and first two grades; on the right is the building housing the 270 children and their eleven teachers in grades three through six; on the left can be seen the building housing grades seven through nine. Each building is a self-contained unit except that there is a library with a full-time librarian in the upper building and this is also used by children in the other two buildings. We were surprised to learn that in addition to the regular classroom teachers, this school has the services of a full-time nurse, a full-time music teacher, who gives vocal and instrumental instruction to pupils above the second grade, a full-time art teacher, a special teacher of physical education for pupils above the second grade, and a school psychologist. Other opportunities include homemaking and industrial arts for pupils above the fourth grade and speech correction for all grades.

One of the outstanding features of this school, as explained by the superintendent, is the splendid cooperation between the community and the school. The interest of the parents in their school is evidenced by the fact that the school has about 97 per cent response on parent-

¹ Description and pictures supplied by Mr. Edward Summerton, superintendent of schools, Weston, Connecticut.

teacher conferences that supplement report letters. These conferences arose from a felt need and parents were in on the planning for the introduction of them as a regular part of the school program. At least twice a year each teacher holds a group conference with the parents of the children in the room to study the program as related to children's needs. Other meetings of teachers and parents are held as needed.

Another outstanding feature of this school that was explained to us is the effort made to meet the needs of the individual child. The fact that each teacher follows a class for a two-year period helps in this understanding of each child as an individual. Parent contacts also contribute to this understanding. Each first-grade teacher visits each home during September to discuss with the parents the problems tending to arise from first-grade adjustment. As we visited in the classrooms we noticed that the size of the classes was small, ranging from eighteen to twenty-eight children per room. We were aware that this was another way in which the school was endeavoring to meet individual needs.

We were especially interested in evidences of pupil participation in various phases of the school life. In one room we found the cafeteria council having its regular meeting. We were told that its nineteen members had been selected from grades one through nine. They were discussing such problems as lunchroom behavior, food preferences, and waste and its control. Using the cafeteria director's master plan, the council was assisting in the planning of the menus. In another room the student council was having a meeting. This council was composed of representatives from grades three through six, elected by the classes. We were told that this council had made suggestions for improvements such as bicycle racks and outdoor drinking fountains. The council also had as one of its duties the supervision of the safety patrol.

In other rooms various clubs were meeting. We learned that the sponsors of some of these clubs were parents who had come in to assist the school by using their interests and talents.

We were particularly interested in one feature of this school that we had not found in any other school visited—a school museum. So many questions were asked of the pupil guides showing us this museum that they referred us to their teacher. We have included a picture, taken in the museum, of this sixth-grade teacher, Mr. Walter F. Peters, and some of his pupils (Plate 10). In order that you may know more about this undertaking we are giving Mr. Peters' account of the history of the museum.

A school museum evolved from the numerous science reports, projects, and research studies pertaining to our science curriculum.

After a science unit is concluded in the classroom the question inevitably arises of what to do with the various exhibits and the written material: Should they be taken home, left at school, or just thrown out? After discussing this problem, my sixth grade felt it would be a shame to leave all this work to become a dust collector or forgotten and eventually destroyed; one suggestion led to another until they all agreed that a school museum would be the answer.

After this decision was made, the greater part of our science program included the collection, classification, and demonstration of various ecological projects so that each child became a curator in a particular field of study. At the completion of a project, a child reported to the class, discussing his findings in detail. When the research was pronounced thorough and correct, it was turned over to the museum. As our material accumulated and showed promise of materializing into a constructive program, we were given a separate room in which to house our treasures.

Thus the museum naturally became a resource center not for our sixth-grade group alone, but also for the rest of the school and any faculty members who felt they could make use of its contents. The museum is often used by one interested person seeking information; it is also used by groups from other classes who wish to make a tour of the museum. Anyone may go through the museum at any time of day provided a sixth-grade guide is available. By employing a rotating system for acting as guides, some member of the sixth grade is available to serve as guide most of the time.

Although the museum is in its infancy it has received much impetus from the fact that the faculty is using it *more and more as a resource center* and the children throughout the nine grades are constantly contributing material to it. Then, too, all indications show that this museum, as it outgrew the schoolroom, will in the not-too-distant future outgrow the school.

Lee L. Caldwell School

Since many of you will be teaching in schools in cities large or small, we have included visits to several city schools in different parts of the country.

One of these visits was to the Lee L. Caldwell School in Hammond, Indiana.⁴ We arrived at the school just before the noon hour. Since we had not seen children in the lunchroom on any of these visits, we accepted the principal's invitation to have lunch with them. We were impressed by the pleasant atmosphere of the school cafeteria. Attractive posters of various kinds were on the bulletin boards. We saw

⁴The description and photographs of this school were provided by Miss Helen M. Broadhurst, principal of the school, Miss Ann Sedor, second-grade teacher; and Mrs. Alice Schold, sixth-grade teacher. Mr. Lee L. Caldwell is superintendent and Miss Merle Gray is director of elementary education in Hammond, Indiana.

a mobile, a fascinating combination of cardboard forms delightfully balanced by an odd arrangement of wires, suspended from the ceiling; each colorful cardboard form carried a reminder such as "Walk," "Be Mannerly," "Quiet," and the like. Plants and bulbs adorned each table. We were told that the posters and the mobile were made by the children.

As the primary children came into the room with their trays, they took their places, eight at a table with an older boy or girl at each table (Plate 11). In answer to our inquiry concerning the older boys and girls at each table, we were introduced to a teacher who had just entered the room. She was the sponsor of an organization called Hosts and Hostesses and she gave us the following description of this organization.

The program began when all the pupils were staying for lunch. At that time we were waiting for our school to be completed and the children were transported by bus to temporary quarters too far away for them to go home for lunch. Need arose for help in some of the rooms while the children ate their lunch since we believed that only one teacher should be in the building during the noon hour. Girls from the fifth and sixth grades volunteered to eat their lunches in the primary rooms to help solve the problem. They helped distribute the milk, reminded children to eat quietly, and dismissed them at the end of the lunch hour. During inclement weather, these girls read or told stories to the children or directed games.

When we moved into our new building many of the children were able to go home for lunch. However, it was decided to continue the same plan, with some variations, for those who ate at school. Several boys had asked to take part in this program, so they were included when the new schedule was put into operation. The boys and girls chose the name Hosts and Hostesses for their organization, chose a chairman for their group, and, with their faculty sponsor, they meet once a month to discuss any problems that have arisen and to set up new standards or revise old ones. Membership in this organization is on a voluntary basis. In recognition of the service given by these boys and girls an award in the form of a felt shield is presented to each one as they leave our school for junior high school. We feel that recognition is deserved for steadfast service. These children give their time and effort to improve their school. They have given up their play-time, have spent time in learning games and stories for younger children, and have spent time in their group meetings discussing and accepting standards of behavior for themselves and others. They have developed some fine attitudes and skills in working with others. Though they call it a job and have worked conscientiously at it, they enjoy it as much as a game and have become finer citizens because of it.

When the primary children left the room the intermediate-grade pupils came in. We were seated at a table at one side of the room, and,

while we ate, the principal gave us the following information concerning the school.

This is a fairly new school, having been completed in 1952. At present there are approximately three hundred children enrolled in the kindergarten and first six grades. Hammond is located in the highly industrialized north-western section of the state known as the Calumet Region. The Caldwell School draws its pupils from three distinct neighborhoods covering an area of approximately two square miles. Many of the parents are skilled or semiskilled workers in the steel mills and oil refineries. There is very little turnover in school population because most of the parents own their homes. The school serves as the center for scout organizations, voter registrations, and parent groups.

We noticed that, as the tables were cleared, games were brought in and children began to group themselves at the tables for the games. We were told that because of bad weather the children had to remain indoors. The primary children were enjoying stories or games in their rooms under the direction of their host or hostess. Some of the intermediate children had chosen to play table games in the cafeteria; others had gone to a large room next to the cafeteria for more active games. We followed the principal to this multipurpose room used both as a gymnasium and auditorium. As we were taken to the stage, we saw that it was between the multipurpose room and the cafeteria and could be used as a stage for either room.

Instead of settling down for an extended visit in one or two rooms of this school, we decided to make brief visits to several rooms. We first stopped at the kindergarten room. We wondered about the quietness when we entered but soon discovered the cause. This was resting time and all the children were lying on mats that they had brought from home (Plate 12). Some were actually asleep, but wiggling feet attested to the fact that others were merely resting. We glanced hastily at the store and post office built of large blocks and at other play materials so well suited to handling by children who needed exercise for large muscles. We did not tarry long lest we disturb the rest period.

We next looked briefly into a first-grade room. We were attracted by the "arithmetic corner" where several children were developing number concepts through the use of concrete number materials.

As we approached a second-grade room, we peeped into a small room across from it. Several children were sitting at a table having an enjoyable time reading books. One child was checking out a book from the little pupil librarian seated proudly at the "librarian's desk" (Plate 13). Seeing our interest, the children eagerly invited us in and

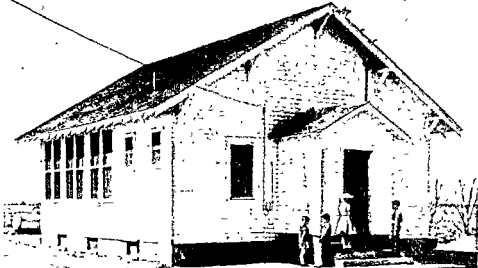


PLATE 1. The Chardon School is a one-teacher rural school near Arwood, Kansas.

PLATE 2. Children examine the terrariums and the aquarium in the science center at the Chardon School.



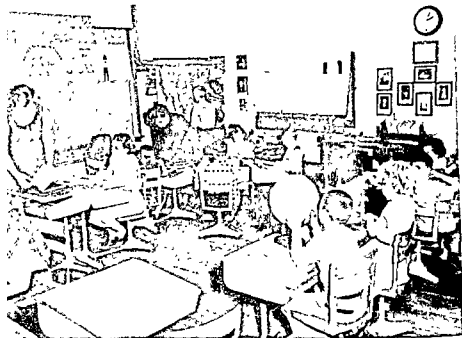


PLATE 3. Children in the Chardon School work independently while the teacher helps the first-graders with their reading.

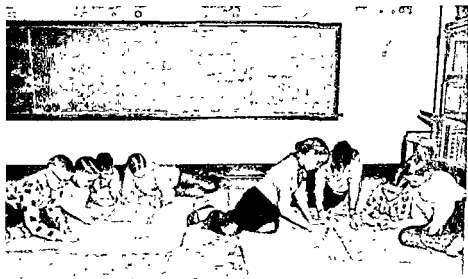
PLATE 4. The first- and second-graders of the Chardon School use addition and subtraction in a meaningful way in the operation of this post office that they built.





PLATE 5. Third-graders of the Hampshire School in Illinois make miniature planetariums by using nails to outline constellations on the bottoms of coffee cans.

PLATE 6. Making maps was one method used in presenting information concerning the community of Hampshire.



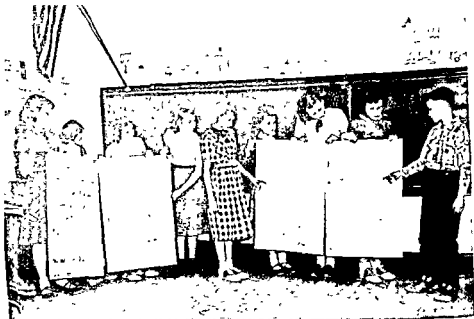


PLATE 7. Sixth-graders present data that they have organized from questionnaires they formulated as one means of securing information about their community.

PLATE 8. Explanation of machinery used on the farms surrounding Hampshire was aided by the use of miniature models. Pupil-made maps of the Hampshire community can be seen in the background.





PLATE 9. Three buildings on a twenty-five-acre campus serve the community of Weston, Connecticut. In the background can be seen the Primary Unit, on the right is the building for grades three to six; and on the left can be seen part of the building for grades seven through nine.

PLATE 10. A sixth-grade teacher and some of his pupils are making plans for further additions to the museum that they have started in the Horace C. Hurlburt School of Weston, Connecticut.



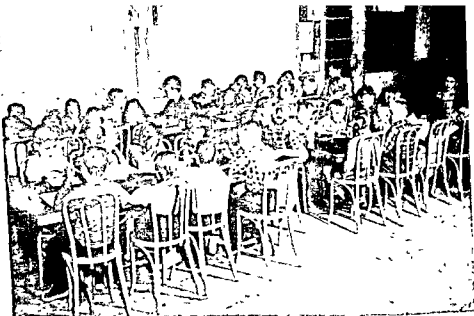
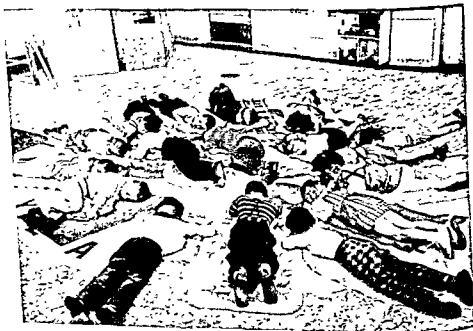


PLATE 11. Fifth- and sixth-grade boys and girls serve as hosts and hostesses in the Lee L. Caldwell School cafeteria.

PLATE 12. This is "resting time" in the kindergarten of the Lee L. Caldwell School in Hammond, Indiana.



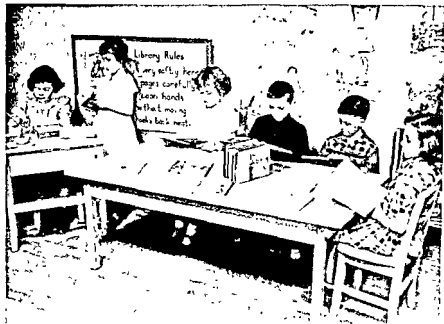


PLATE 13. Second-graders in the Lee L. Caldwell School enjoy using the library, which they planned and established in a small room across from their classroom.

PLATE 14. The murals painted by the second-graders of the Lee L. Caldwell School for the walls of their library illustrate some of their favorite books.



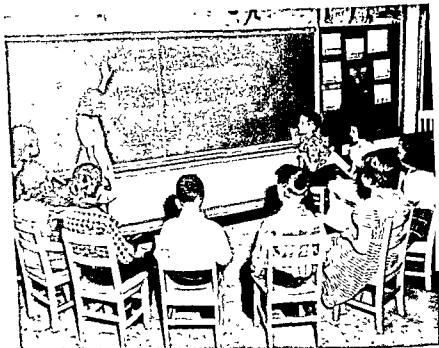


PLATE 15. These second-graders at the Lee L. Caldwell School are reading to verify questions about the story in the basic text.

PLATE 16. Third-graders at the Lee L. Caldwell School are learning to use the dial telephone, which is new in their community.

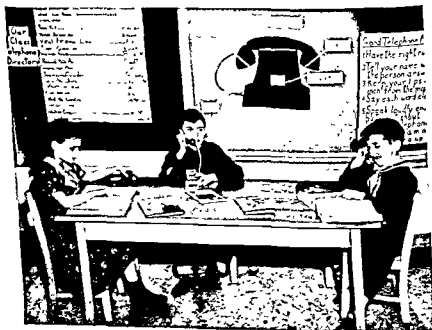
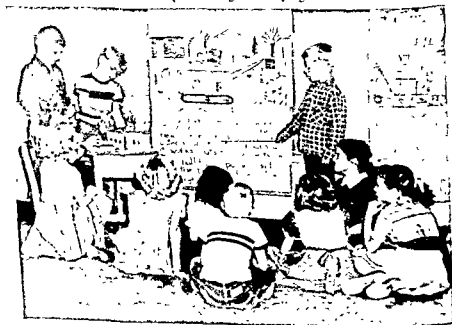




PLATE 19. Second-graders at the James Monroe School learn of the work of one of their community helpers, the bricklayer, as they watch the building of an addition to their school building.

PLATE 20. Follow-up activities after visiting the workmen building the addition to the James Monroe School included the making of experience charts and experimenting with "laying a few bricks."



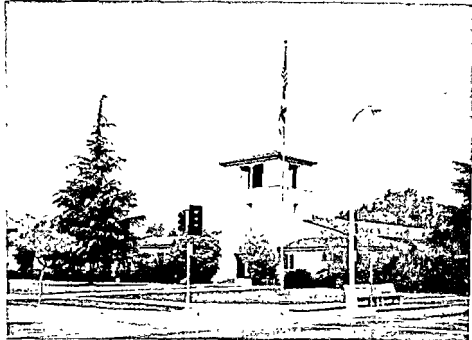


PLATE 21. The Mark Twain Elementary School of Long Beach, California, is of Spanish architecture built around a patio.



PLATE 22. Sixth-graders of the Mark Twain School visited a local newspaper plant as part of their study of "Man and His Records." The children watch with wonder the complicated linotype machine.



PLATE 23. Watching the completion of a matrix gave these Mark Twain sixth-graders a better understanding of the process of printing a newspaper.

PLATE 24. Reading is fun when children have access to a wide variety of books. Children in a second grade at the Mark Twain School enjoy a free reading period in the library.



showed us their library. They called our attention to the murals they had painted to decorate the walls, depicting some of their favorite books (Plate 14). They pointed to their "rules," explaining that the big library that they had visited downtown had rules also. They explained that they were free to come to their library anytime they had finished their work. The principal supplemented their explanations by adding that these children and their teacher had really "made" this library by utilizing an unused room. Their book supply consisted of about thirty-five books from their classroom library; twenty-five selected from the Children's Department of the Public Library, exchanged every six weeks; and an additional twenty books from the same source selected by the teacher and exchanged every four weeks. The principal also told us of being in the second-grade room when they were sharing books they had read from their library. Their enthusiasm for "telling" was so great that it was often difficult for them to remember to take turns.

Entering the second-grade room, we saw the teacher seated with one reading group and another reading group carrying on by themselves. The chairman of this latter group was calling attention to the questions that the teacher had placed on the board to guide them in *their silent reading of the story and later in their discussion* (Plate 15).

In a third-grade room we saw a group of children practicing the use of the dial telephone, which was new in their community (Plate 16). In a fourth-grade room we found grouping in reading again, this time a group preparing for oral reading by listing characteristics of a good oral reader before each one of the group read his report. Again we saw a student chairman in charge of the group. We regretted not having time to visit more of these classrooms, for the samples had been so interesting that we were sure we could have found many more meaningful learning situations in this school.

James Monroe School

One of the reasons for including the James Monroe School⁹ of Oklahoma City in our visits is that it is an excellent example of a new building that provides a favorable environment for learning.

As we approached this building we saw that the structure was quite different from that of the elementary schools that most of us were used to seeing. This was a modern one-story buff brick building, consisting of two wings with a U court between (Plate 17).

The first thing that caught our attention when we entered the building was a large picture frame recessed into the wall, where murals made by the children were displayed. The principal invited us into her office, where she gave us some background information about this school.

The James Monroe School was built in 1951. It has eleven teachers and serves 332 children at present. The district served by this school is a new suburban area. The majority of the parents are on the above-average socio-economic level, most of them being college graduates. They are young couples with growing families, who have bought their homes in this area. The school is situated so that most of the children can walk to and from school; there are no main highways to cross. Due to the interest and help of an active P.T.A., cooperation between the community and the school is excellent. During the first six or eight weeks of school, each teacher holds an evening meeting with the parents of the children in her class. At this time the school program is outlined, and there is cooperative planning for some of the activities to be carried on during the year. These meetings have brought about a much better understanding of the school program.

The primary schedule is flexible. The time spent on any activity depends upon the plans made for that particular day. However, the teachers have found that it is necessary to work with children on at least three developmental reading levels.

The school operates on the self-contained classroom plan with one teacher guiding all the learning experiences of a group of children. Available for the teachers are the services of a general supervisor as well as art, music, playground, and safety supervisors.

The social studies (with science often overlapping to a great extent) are taught on the unit plan within a specified area designed for each grade level. These units are developed by pupil-teacher, pupil-pupil planning, and in some instances pupil-teacher-parent planning. In social studies and science, work groups are formed on an interest level.

In reading, arithmetic, and spelling, children are placed in working groups on the basis of academic achievement in order to provide for the wide range of abilities in an average classroom.

When the principal paused, one of our group asked for more information concerning the reading groups of which she had spoken. The principal turned to her desk and from a drawer took the following schedule, which portrays diagrammatically the way in which a primary teacher in that school planned her reading program.

<i>Group I</i>	<i>Group II</i>	<i>Group III</i>
Read (with Teacher)	Assigned Work Check Work	Free-Choice Period
Free-Choice Period	Read (with Teacher)	Assigned Work Check Work
Assigned Work Check Work	Free-Choice Period	Read (with Teacher)

After explaining the organization of the reading program, the principal continued:

The intermediate program is flexible, also, the greatest difference being the way in which the developmental reading program is set up. There are three academic achievement levels, but instead of the teacher attempting to work directly with each group each day, the program is planned on a weekly basis in order to give the teacher a longer period of time with a group. The teacher works for about forty-five minutes with one of the reading groups each day. The class also works as a unit on choral speaking, dictionary skills, and sharing of reading.

Democratic practices are being learned through a student council, which consists of two pupils from each of the ten classrooms beginning with the first grade. The council meets once a week with the school principal as adviser. The council members concern themselves with such things as lunchroom etiquette, sharing of playground equipment, orientation of new pupils, beautification of school grounds, and school safety problems.

Before we began our tour of the building, our attention was called to the intercommunication cabinet in the principal's office, which was used to transmit radio programs to the classrooms, either to only one room or to as many as desire the program. We were told that one morning a week the children broadcasted the morning devotions over the intercommunication system. There was a clinic just off the office area; the clinic has adequate space for two beds, a sink, a medicine cabinet, a nurse's desk, and a typewriter.

We first visited the kindergarten area, which consists of two large rooms (each larger than the ordinary-size classroom) that can be made one or separated by plastic folding doors. The main room is a beautiful room with blue and yellow walls, a picture window looking out onto a flower garden, a large clock inlaid in the tile floor, and a patio to the south, where the children can work and play when the weather is suit-

able. At the end of one room is an alcove that has on one side a sink with long drain boards covered with formica. Under the drain boards are drawers and bins for storing materials. On the other wall of the alcove is the toilet and lavatory, hidden by a stationary 4-foot wall.

We next went to a large all-purpose room across the corridor from the office. This room is decorated in turquoise and rose. The stage curtain is a deep, rich turquoise and the walls adjoining are a light, soft shade of the same color. The draperies at the windows are deep rose, with the walls a much lighter shade. Tables and benches, which are used for the lunch period, fold into the wall, leaving the floor space to be used for rhythms, games, and school assemblies.

The all-purpose room, cafeteria, and adjoining hallways are a unit in themselves, with a separate outside entrance. This area can be closed off from the rest of the building for night meetings of P.T.A. and other community groups, such as Boy Scouts, Brownies, and Girl Scouts. At the end of the corridor that separates the office from the all-purpose room, we got a glimpse into the teachers' lounge, which was furnished by the P.T.A.

As we started down one of the wings housing the classrooms, we were given a brief description of these rooms since we did not have time to visit all of them. There are five classrooms in each wing. Each room has a south door opening on a patio. Each room also has a door leading into a corridor on the north. All ten rooms are equipped with a sink and drinking fountain, and the first-grade rooms all have toilet and lavatory facilities. The built-in cabinet spaces are of blond wood. The coat closets have plastic folding doors in colors to match the walls, which are in cheerful pastels. Usually two colors are used in a room, as green and peach, or blue and yellow. The south walls consist of windows beginning about three feet from the floor and extending all the way to the ceiling. They are of small panes about 14 inches square, with the top five rows of blue glass to soften the glare. Under the windows there are book shelves that extend the full length of the room. At the end is a receptacle for balls and bats. The tops of these shelves, covered with formica, provide places for setting up "centers of interest" for science, arithmetic, and art.

In the course of our brief visits in some of the classrooms, we realized that science received a great deal of emphasis in this school. One group of second-graders was listening to a radio broadcast "Let's Find Out." The children were carrying on some simple experiments by following the directions given by "the Science Lady." The teacher explained that she had a guidebook that outlined the materials that will be needed for carrying out the experiments for each program, so she had prepared for this in advance. She also said that after the broadcast the children would probably want to find out more about the subject

that had been discussed on the radio program and that there were science books and other sources available to help them in their search. We met one group of children in the hall. They had just returned from "a science walk" in a nearby wooded area, where they had found a stream, wild grasses, and wild flowers.

We went into a sixth grade where some boys were busily engaged in making weather instruments. Some of the children told us that they had all become interested in the weather because of TV programs on this subject and had engaged in many interesting activities in finding out about such things as the type of clouds and the causes of high- and low-pressure areas. Each day a "weather man" predicts the weather for Oklahoma City and vicinity, basing the predictions on a study of weather maps and barometer readings. This interest in weather had led to a study of "How Weather or Climatic Conditions Affect Living in Different Parts of the World."

We went into a fourth-grade room and our attention was immediately caught by a store, which seemed to be a real store and not just a play store. The teacher gave us the following account of the store and how it had helped to make the arithmetic program more meaningful.

The fourth-grade children became interested in building a store because so many children forgot to purchase new materials when needed. In this way *their needs could be met in the classroom. In a few months it developed into Monroe Book Store for the whole school, managed by the fourth-grade children (Plate 18).* They sell pencils, crayolas, erasers, and notebook fillers. The store is an excellent help in the teaching of arithmetic, particularly in the handling of money. It has served as a stimulus for self-drill in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, since a child must reach a certain standard of proficiency and accuracy before he can work in the store.

Two children are responsible for the store over a period of two or three weeks. This gives each child the experience of working in the store at least twice during the year.

The children have experiences in buying, selling, and figuring profit. They have learned to figure wholesale and retail prices, and profit on each order. They have also learned to figure prices and profit over a long period of buying and selling.

The children bought a new AM and FM band radio for their room this year. They plan to buy a new United States flag for the school flagpole and some filmstrips with the balance of their profit.

When we went into a second-grade room, we realized immediately that these children had been studying community helpers. At the suggestion of the teacher various children took us about the room and explained to us what they had found out about community helpers. One child told of their trip to the nearby medical center and showed

us pictures that they had made of the doctors and nurses. Another told of their trip to the fire station and showed pictures of the helpers they had seen on this trip. One child showed us a miniature church that they had made from scraps of lumber given to them by the workmen when they visited a church being constructed in their neighborhood. We noticed some boys working in a corner with bricks and a trowel. They explained that the class had just returned from visiting the workmen who were helping to build the six-room addition to their school. One of the workmen had shown them how he was laying brick (Plate 19) and had even given them a few bricks and an old trowel so that they might "lay a few bricks" of their own (Plate 20). Seeing our interest in their new addition, one child read us the experience chart that the class had composed about this new feature of their school.

We had visited only a few of the rooms in this school but from these brief visits we knew that this school was one with an environment conducive to good learning.

Mark Twain Elementary School

One of the most picturesque schools that we visited was the Mark Twain Elementary School* in Long Beach, California. In Plate 21 we have tried to give you a picture of this building of Spanish architecture built around a patio. Since it was built some fifteen years ago, the district has grown so much that additional classrooms have had to be built. An annex across the street houses additional classrooms, which help take care of the large enrollment. In 1954 the kindergarten and first six grades had 1,325 students enrolled. There is a nursery school on one corner of the playground. We found out that the Mark Twain district is in a fast-growing area. Most of the people in this area are young business and professional people who have come to California from all parts of the United States. The children can walk to school since distances are not great. The parents and other members of the community are friendly toward the school; they come often to visit and also participate in the activities of the school through the P.T.A. and in other ways.

The principal was just coming into the office as we entered, having just returned from a meeting with the Student Council. We asked many questions about this organization and found that it is a live and vital part of the Mark Twain School. It has representation from each classroom, has officers chosen from the sixth grade, has a teacher spon-

* The descriptions and photographs of the school were provided by Mrs. Gladys L. Potter, deputy superintendent of Long Beach public schools, Mrs. Hazelle G. Borgerson, sixth-grade teacher, and Mrs. Helen F. Johnson, second-grade teacher in the Mark Twain Elementary School of Long Beach, California.

sor, and meets once a week. The council handles such problems as keeping the grounds clean; behavior in the cafeteria, assembly, and halls; and the spending of student body money. The council is run in a democratic fashion and gives the youngsters experience in voting, choosing leaders, discussing and solving problems, and understanding their school and the importance of cooperation. There are safety councils in all the elementary schools of Long Beach. The safety council for each school plans and organizes playground safety and street crossings. There are no traffic patrols in any elementary school.

The principal had accepted an invitation to accompany a sixth grade on an excursion to a local newspaper that afternoon and asked if we would like to go along. Since we had not had the opportunity to take part in an excursion on any of our visits, we gladly agreed to go. Going on the excursion left us very little time to visit in the school itself. We did ask to see the school library and on our way to the library we glanced in at their beautiful and functional assembly room. Of course only certain grades or parts of the school can use it at one time. Sometimes the entire school does get together in the patio. Participation by the pupils in the assembly program is the rule. The student council frequently has charge of the assembly.

The children in the library did not look up as we entered. They were so absorbed in their reading and evidently were having such a good time at it that we wanted to know more about this library activity. We found out that these were second-grade children, but when we located their teacher, she was busy and could not talk to us at that time; however, she promised to send us an account of Library Day in her second grade.

Hurrying down the hall to join the sixth-graders, we heard an interesting remark as we passed a fifth-grade room: "I'm glad this is Friday. I'm looking forward to our club meeting this afternoon." Since we had not had the opportunity to see a school club in operation on any of our visits, we were tempted to stop in this room; we also wanted to go on the excursion with the sixth-graders. Remembering the graciousness of the second-grade teacher who had promised to send us an account of the library activity, we ventured to ask this fifth-grade teacher if she would send us an account of the club meeting in her room. She readily promised to do so; hence we joined those leaving for the excursion.

As we rode along with the sixth-graders, the teacher gave us the following account of events leading up to this excursion.

This sixth-grade class has been studying "Man and His Records." After an intensive study of the historical sequence of how man kept records down through the ages, the class was anxious to see a modern press at work. A broad background of information had been gleaned through extensive re-

search reading and examining of pictures and audio-visual material. They had learned about the personnel of a newspaper, how the reporters gathered the news, about the three large news agencies, how the teletype and linotype operated, the interrelation of the radio, and about news pictures. Some of the children had become keenly interested in recording machines and motion pictures as the study of man and his records progressed. Now they wanted to see Long Beach's *Press-Telegram* in action. Much planning in advance was done for this excursion and detailed questions had been listed in order that they might obtain all of the information they wanted.

As we followed these sixth-graders through the newspaper plant, we were interested in their alertness and curiosity. From the asking of questions and careful observation of all that they saw going on about them, they found answers to such questions as the following, questions that we realized were the ones they had set up as objectives of this excursion.

1. By what kind of power are the presses run?
2. How much paper is used daily?
3. How wide is the circulation of this paper?
4. How many editions come out each day?
5. How much does it cost per issue to operate this press?
6. How many people does this press employ?
7. Are the papers folded by machine?

Plate 22 shows you the intense interest evidenced in the work of the linotype machine. In Plate 23 the children watch the completion of a matrix, a paper matrix pattern converted to metal.

On the ride back to the school we were interested in the animated discussion of what had been seen. It was evident to us that these children had not only gained much knowledge about a modern newspaper but had also acquired a deep appreciation for the work of all of those who make possible this means of record keeping.

When we arrived at the school, it was dismissal time so we did not get to visit further. However, in order that you may have a more complete picture of this school we are sharing with you the accounts of "Library Day" and "A Club Meeting," which were sent to us by two of the teachers in this school.

LIBRARY DAY IN THE SECOND GRADE¹

"Today is library day!" says Susan, as she comes in the door at nine o'clock, her face all aglow with anticipation. And so at half-past ten, along with one half of her second-grade group, she is ready to enjoy the weekly half hour in the school library. At eleven o'clock the other half of the room

¹ This account was supplied by Mrs. Helen F. Johnson, teacher in the Mark Twain School.

will have a turn. In the meantime the children remaining in the classroom finish a story they are writing or get individual help in arithmetic or spelling from the teacher. It is a helpful, quiet time with only one half of the children there.

From her experience in first grade, Susan knows how to cross the patio to the library and quietly find a place at one of the tables, but today it is hard to be quiet because she has waited for it so long. At the beginning of the year, the librarian told or read a wonderful story, and then there was time to browse among all the books for Susan's grade level. Now it is January and the time has come when, after story time, instead of just looking at the books, she can choose one to keep for a week.

Susan loves cats, and so finally, after looking over several books, she selects *All about Willie*, the story of a little cat who is looking for a home. Before she checks it out, however, she has to read a portion of it to the librarian to be sure she hasn't chosen a book beyond her reading ability (Plate 24).

Back in the room again, Susan wants to tell about her book. She finishes by saying, "I'll tell you how the story ends when I've read it all. Miss Leonard says we must keep our books in our desks to read after our work is finished. But in a few weeks, when she is sure we know how to look after them, she said we could take them home to read to Mother and Father."

Then Tommy wants to tell the story the librarian read. Billy and John add some more important facts to Tommy's résumé. At this point, Susan says, "My dog can do better tricks than Tip can. I'd like to write a story about him." A lively discussion ensues, and in a few minutes the whole group is busy with individual stories extolling the virtues of their own pet or one they know down the street.

From library experiences such as these, Susan and her friends are developing an appreciation of good books, both for the enjoyment they offer and for the information they contain. Also, learning to read has become more important. What fun it will be, reading all those books without help from anyone.

The library helps us in other ways, too. One day Tommy brought a collection of butterflies. Another day Carolyn had a snake skin to share. There were so many things we wanted to know about them, and the librarian guided us to books that answered all our questions.

A CLUB MEETING IN THE FIFTH GRADE*

"I'm glad today is Friday," said Barbara, "I'm looking forward to having our club meeting."

Barbara expressed the eagerness and interest of all the children in their newly formed classroom club.

This fifth-grade class organized the club to help run their classroom. It developed into a democratic organization with everyone taking part in

* This account was supplied by Mrs. Hazelle G. Borgerson, teacher in the Mark Twain School.

the activities. The main purpose of the club was to assist with the classroom routines and plan group activities that might benefit both the class and the school. It was decided the club should meet once a week, have a president, vice-president, secretary, and a treasurer. What kind of leaders were needed to fulfill these important key positions became a major topic of discussion. This question pinpointed the responsibilities of each office and a consideration of the qualifications needed to carry out these responsibilities. Merely voting for a "best friend" was decided unwise unless that person was trustworthy and reliable and had the other capabilities necessary for the office under consideration. The children did some critical thinking and as a result nominated boys and girls well equipped to perform the duties of club officers.

The regular procedure for holding an election was discussed. Nominations for the various offices were made to the presiding chairman, and the secretary (pro tem) recorded them on the blackboard. Each member rose to address the chair, by saying either "Madam Chairman" or "Mr. Chairman." The Chairman recognized him by speaking his name. When the nominations were closed, ballots were passed and each member of the class voted. It was a good experience for these youngsters and in most instances their first in parliamentary procedure.

Tellers were chosen to collect the ballots and to tally the votes. The newly elected officers took over their duties immediately. The secretary prepared the minutes in a special notebook. The treasurer kept his accounts in a special book also. It was decided that contributions to the club should be entirely voluntary. No one was obligated at any time to donate a certain amount. No record was kept of the names of those who contributed; just the voluntary giving of pennies by any member at any time built up a sufficient fund for our uses. To have some money available made it possible for the class to show appreciation to the librarian, caretaker, and many other leaders who were helpful to them in special ways during the year. They remembered these "helpers" and also classmates who were ill, with special cards or small inexpensive gifts.

Many fine attitudes were built as a result of the work of this club. For example, during "new business" many suggestions for responsibilities involved in classroom living were discussed. Often there was much opportunity for critical thinking and good leadership. All the social functions of the classroom were carried on through this organization, which afforded splendid opportunities for leadership development in boys and girls. An appreciation of the responsibilities carried by a good citizen was one of the outstanding assets of these club meetings conducted for the pupils, by the pupils.

Portraits of Good Teachers

While visiting schools in various parts of the country, we have met many teachers whom we wish all our readers could know. Since

it would be impossible to tell you about them all, we are giving you a brief sketch of two in order that you may have some idea of the many things that teachers do besides teaching.

Daniel Todd. We met Daniel Todd while visiting schools in a small town. He was a young man who had been teaching the sixth grade for the four years since his graduation from college, where he had majored in elementary education and industrial arts. Since the town where he taught was near a college campus, he had been able to carry on graduate work during the summer sessions and by attending class one evening a week during the winter. Recently he had received his master's degree.

There were three sixth-grade classes in this school. Except for music, Mr. Todd taught all the sixth-grade academic work. A woman teacher had charge of physical education for all the sixth-grade girls, and Mr. Todd supervised physical education for all the sixth-grade boys. Mr. Todd and the third sixth-grade teacher exchanged services on other nonacademic work; for example, she helped his children with costumes and he helped hers with construction activities.

We had visited Mr. Todd's classroom and had been impressed with his ability as a teacher, but we wanted to know more about his responsibilities other than teaching. We found that he took his turn at cafeteria and playground supervision and also served as textbook librarian for the upper grades. He also drove the school bus in the afternoons (another teacher had the morning assignment); for this duty he received extra pay. Occasionally he was asked to drive the bus for high school students attending out-of-town contests or meetings on Saturdays.

His reference to extra pay reminded us to ask about the financial remuneration for teaching. Mr. Todd admitted that a nine-months job was a financial handicap for a man with a family, but added that he had found several ways of supplementing his salary during the summer months. One summer he had assisted with the summer recreational program sponsored jointly by the schools and the community. Another summer he had made five hundred dollars working on the house of a fellow teacher. He reminded us that his salary was larger this year because of his having received a master's degree. In addition the financial status of the family was helped by the fact that his wife worked half time at the Chamber of Commerce office.

We asked about his family and found that he and his wife and their four-year-old daughter, Jenny, lived in a rather small house but one that had a large yard. He had made a variety of play equipment for the yard, and as a result it was the gathering place of all the children in the neighborhood. Since Mrs. Todd left for work each morning

when he did, they teamed up to get the household chores done before leaving. His wife drove him to school, then left Jenny at kindergarten until noon, when Mrs. Todd finished work.

We learned that Mr. Todd was active in several professional and community organizations. He was busy at the time preparing his part for a panel discussion on social security for teachers, which was to be given at the semiannual meeting of the county unit of the state teachers' association. He mentioned that he usually attended the annual spring meeting of the district division and had attended one state meeting of the teachers' association in his four years of teaching. Community interests kept the Todds busy in the evenings. One evening a week he helped with the Boy Scouts. One evening a month he kept free to stay at home as "sitter" while his wife attended the planning meeting of her Sunday-school class. An annual occasion to which they both looked forward, and for which they engaged a sitter far in advance, was the banquet sponsored jointly by the service clubs of the town and the Parent-Teacher's Association to honor the teachers. At this meeting one teacher was honored for long and outstanding service by the gift of a life membership in the Parent-Teacher's Association, and other teachers who had taught twenty years or more were given service pins.

As we were leaving, Mr. Todd made this comment:

When you are talking with young people who are considering going into teaching, tell them to come on and join our ranks. We may not get rich in this profession, but at least we live comfortably, and teaching has many compensations that mean more to me than extra money for luxuries. The thrill of helping children progress and the satisfaction of being a part of the community make teaching the life for me.

Sadie Scott. While visiting in a three-teacher rural school we met Mrs. Scott and were immediately attracted by her pleasant appearance. She not only had the neat and cheerful look of all good teachers but also gave evidence of a real zest for living. Her good nature proved to be contagious, since all the children in her primary room appeared to be happy and relaxed, yet busy at work. She was proud of the fact that she had been teaching for twenty years. She had taught before her marriage and had liked the work so much that she had gone back to it when her son started school.

Mrs. Scott said that she belonged to two communities, the one in which she lived and the one in which she taught, six miles from her home. The other two teachers lived in the same town, and the three of them took turns driving their cars to school; it might be said that they had "faculty meetings" every morning and afternoon as they made these trips together. She laughed as she described her "weighted down" appearance when she stepped out of the car each morning, laden with

the many things that she was bringing to school for the day, such as a bundle of newspapers to be used with finger painting; a parakeet that she had borrowed from a neighbor to show Sandra, who had asked about the "talking bird" in a story the class had read; or a birthday cake for a first-grader who came from a home where birthdays were unnoticed.

Each teacher in this three-teacher school had responsibilities in addition to teaching. One was principal, charged with the administrative duties of the school. Mrs. Scott was responsible for the finances of the lunchroom. Some of the patrons of the school seemed to think that her husband shared this responsibility, since occasionally a patron would leave money at Mr. Scott's place of business in town, expecting him to give an account of whose lunches had been paid for in this manner. Her husband took this good-naturedly, for he felt that he was a part of the community in which she taught. In fact her teaching was shared by the entire family. Her husband and her son, now in high school, often went with her to night meetings at the school and thus became acquainted with many of her pupils and their parents. On the vacation trips that the Scotts made in the summer, all three of them *kept on the lookout for things that they might bring back for next year's primary youngsters to enjoy.*

When we commented on the up-to-dateness of her methods, she reminded us that teachers have many opportunities for keeping up-to-date. The journals of the state and national teachers' organizations to which she belonged had kept her informed on recent trends of teaching. In addition, since she lived in a college town, she had had the opportunity of attending summer school and had received her master's degree.

We did not learn much from her about her participation in the community, since she was modest about her contribution. She did say that she enjoyed working with the Mothers' Club of the school which met once a month. As she described the club's sponsoring of a Halloween carnival and two community get-togethers, when the fathers as well as other citizens came to learn about school activities, we could visualize the active part she played in such undertakings. The teachers were always asked to help decorate the church for weddings in the community—and were always invited to the ceremony and the reception.

Later, as we talked with some of the citizens of both her communities, we realized that Mrs. Scott had been too modest about her part in community life. We heard of the many times that she had interested service clubs in securing glasses for children whose families could not afford this necessity. She taught a Sunday-school class and was active in several civic organizations.

We did not need to ask Mrs. Scott why she taught or what she thought of her job. Her love of children and her enthusiasm for teaching were evidenced in her words and actions.

Chapter Summary

This imaginary visit to modern elementary schools has taken the reader to widely separated parts of the United States. The schools that have been described include a one-teacher rural school in Kansas, a consolidated school in Illinois, a school in a suburban community in Connecticut, and city schools in Indiana, Oklahoma, and California.

Although these schools are located in widely separated places, in widely different communities, and in widely different surroundings, there are many common elements in the school programs as reflected in the six narratives. There are genuine concern for children's welfare, use of neighborhood resources in the teaching program, concern for social and citizenship education as well as proficiency in the academic fields, flexible daily schedules, and multiple teaching techniques.

In the portraits of teachers and in the narratives there are other common elements, such as the teachers' efforts to know and understand the children, the concern for well-rounded growth and development of children, the effort to deal with children as individuals, and the willingness to go "beyond the call of duty" in handling the many aspects of teaching.

As the reader probably recognizes, no one of the six schools has a perfect program. Each is operating under limitations and each is striving to improve its services to children. There probably does not exist in the United States a single elementary school in which every aspect of its plant and program represents the best that is known about how elementary schools should be. Although the six schools described in this chapter reveal many frontier practices, each falls short of its ideals in some respects. No doubt it is impossible for an existing school to represent the frontier of best thought and practice consistently because research and theory are constantly moving forward and a school plant built last year may be out of date by next. Theory necessarily must precede practice; hence today's schools are, by the very nature of things, somewhat behind the best knowledge and theory of today. The important thing is that every school should keep as nearly abreast of new developments as possible. The good school is the school that is least behind the current frontier of knowledge and is continuously changing into a better school. Modern elementary schools are the best schools of today that are "becoming" the best schools of tomorrow.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Baxter, Bernice, Gertrude M. Lewis, and Gertrude M. Cross. *The Role of Elementary Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1952. Part IV, "The School in Action."
2. *Creating a Good Environment for Learning*. Yearbook, 1954. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1954. Chap. 1, "A Day in a Primary Grade," Chap. 3, "Seven Years in a Rural Upper-Grade School."
3. Drummond, Harold D., Coordinator. *Promising Practices in Elementary Schools*. Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1952.
4. Rummell, Frances V. "What Are Good Teachers Like?" *School Life*, 30 (June, July, 1948), 1-12.
5. Theman, Viola. *A Good School Day*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.

Suggested Student Activities

1. Browse through the narratives in this chapter and make (a) a list of the features common to several of the schools; (b) a list of the features that are different from those of the elementary schools you attended or the ones you know.
2. Add to the above lists from examination of such sources as the following: (a) Harold D. Drummond, *Promising Practices in Elementary Schools* (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1952), and (b) *Pictures of Children Living and Learning* (Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1951).
3. Make a visit as a class to a local elementary school and ask the principal to give you a "conducted tour" over the building in order that you may get an idea of the total setup of an elementary school.

PART 2

The Educational Program



The Educative Environment of the Preschool Child

A moment's reflection will remind one of the well-known fact that all of one's learnings do not come from formal schooling. Many of the things that children at any age or adults know or are able to do have been learned in such out-of-school situations as the home, play groups, neighborhood and community contacts, travel, and so on. The total *educative environment for any individual thus consists of all his activities and interactions with the persons, objects, events, and physical phenomena that occur in the course of his daily living. It is out of these contacts and interactions that changes take place in the person.*

Children are growing, developing, and learning at all times, wherever they may be and whatever they may be doing. The child's total educative environment thus includes all his activities and interactions with the persons, objects, events, and physical phenomena that appear in his day-to-day living and out of which interaction changes take place in the child's thinking, feeling, attitudes, beliefs, information, conduct, and skills. Children, as well as adults, learn through the experiences they have as they interact with the elements of their environment.

Since many of these interaction changes have taken place before the child enters school, it is important that the elementary teacher know the kinds of experiences that have influenced the child's development thus far. *This knowledge should enable the teacher to understand the child better and will provide a basis for future guidance of his development.*

The Child's First Three Years

Educative environment and physical development. During the first three months of life the child's educative environment is quite narrow. In most cases it is limited to contacts he makes with his bed or crib, his mother or others who take care of him, and his experiences in being fed, bathed, and dressed. The child's world during these first few months is restricted because the child himself does not have the physical maturity to make the most of his environment. There are many limitations due to the immature status of sight, hearing, taste, and smell.¹ The infant's visual development is somewhat slow because the muscular processes involved in accurate vision are rather complicated, involving the focusing of light on the retina and the coordination of movement of the two eyeballs. Within two or three weeks, the infant has sufficient control over his eyes to see large objects within his range of vision. For the first few months of life the baby explores the environment near at hand, consisting of the persons who care for him and the toys or objects placed within his range of vision. By the age of seven to nine months the mechanism for keen vision is under control, and since the baby can now sit up his range of vision widens and he is able to focus his eyes on any object within the room. However, the eyeball does not reach its full weight until around the age of seven; therefore, the use of vision continues to increase throughout the period of early childhood.

Opinions concerning the development of the sense of taste and smell vary. Although there is some evidence that these two senses are present at birth or soon after, it seems safe to conclude that the functions of these two senses become more complex and differentiated as experience broadens and that their roles in the child's education become greater and more diversified as the child progresses from infancy to maturity.

Within the first few days of life babies show reaction to loud noises, thus indicating that the hearing mechanism is fairly well developed at birth. However, there is little evidence that the newborn baby distinguishes between tones or sounds. As auditory acuity and tone discrimination increase, the child becomes increasingly able to use the sense of hearing to broaden the scope of his educative resources.

The capacity for physical mobility likewise limits the young child's educative environment. Until the child can sit up by himself, he can see only the things above or near him as he is lying down or

¹ Marion F. Breckenridge and E. Lee Vincent, *Child Development* (2d ed.; Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1950), pp. 342-344.

the things within his range of vision as he is being held or moved by those taking care of him. As soon as the child moves about, either by creeping or walking, many new features in the environment become accessible and thus have educational value for him. Most children have discovered creeping or crawling as a means of locomotion by the age of six to eight months, and the average age of independent walking, determined by wide studies of many children, seems to be somewhere between thirteen and fourteen months.²

As we have seen, a child develops slowly in the first three years due to the gradual development of his senses and physical capabilities. Accompanying the child's physical development is his social awareness and growth. The people around him contribute in a marked way to his educative environment.

Persons in the household. Undoubtedly the most important element in the child's environment during the first three years of life is the group of people who make up the family circle. From the child's standpoint, the most important member of the family group is the mother. Almost invariably it is the mother who feeds him and takes care of him most of the time during early infancy and looks after his needs more extensively than anyone else during the first three years. It is with the assistance of his mother and others who take care of him that the child adapts himself to the customary routines of eating, getting dressed and undressed, keeping clean, sleeping, and many other essential activities pertinent to the care of a small child.

Whoever, next to the mother, plays the most prominent role in the child's life during the first three years depends upon the membership of the household, the nature of the father's occupation, and, in some cases, whether the mother works outside the home. The increasingly large number of mothers who work outside the home necessitates the care of many children by someone other than the mother. Sometimes this care is provided in day nurseries or nursery schools; often a relative or some other adult comes into the home to care for the child. Often these "substitute mothers" do not have the time nor the patience to help the child explore and understand his environment. Frequently the working mother is too tired or too busy after returning from work to give the child the attention he desires and needs.

Usually the father works during the day and his contacts with the child are limited to the time in the morning before he leaves for work and the time in the evening after he has returned. Fathers differ widely in the extent to which they assist in caring for their children and in the amount of time they devote to playing with them. Usually the father's contacts with the child are quite different from those of

² *Ibid.*, pp. 304-306.

the mother, so that the influence of the parents upon the child and the child's interaction with each parent are *different in many respects*. The somewhat different roles of father and mother produce variety, complexity, and balance in the child's educative environment.

In some households older or younger brothers and sisters *constitute elements in the child's human environment*, especially if these brothers and sisters are at home during a great portion of the child's waking hours. Any one of us can cite many illustrations of children under three years of age who are "saucy," "domineering," "possessive," "cowed," "talkative," or something else, largely because of the way in which brothers or sisters have teased them, bossed them around, or dealt with them in some other fashion that elicited types of responses.

Many households also contain one or more persons classified as grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, servants, and guests. Pointed jokes have been created about mother-in-law and her influence upon the *home life of a family*. Without going into details, it should be clear to everyone how in-laws can become major influences for good, or for bad, on the character of human relations in a home. Other relatives, servants, and guests are *significant elements in the child's human environment*. Each individual makes a contribution of his own because he is a person different from all the others and because he relates himself to the child in ways different from the other persons in the household. The way these different persons deal with each other and speak with each other is another important factor in the child's educative environment.

In what ways do the members of the household constitute the human element in the child's environment? In the first place, they provide for the child's need of food, clothing, shelter, cleanliness, amusement, and so forth; and by doing so they enable the child to become acquainted with the many objects and activities involved in these routines. In serving the child or helping him to meet his needs they show the child *accepted procedures in performing the various activities* and assist him in following them. For example, the child learns to sleep in a bed instead of on the floor or somewhere else, to eat from dishes and with spoon or fork instead of with his fingers, to wear clothes instead of remaining naked, and to use the facilities in the bathroom. These are but a few of the *numerous things the child learns* because other persons in the household are there to show him how and to assist him in acquiring self-proficiency in the routines of living.

Other highly significant factors associated with the presence of the *members of the household* are language, attitudes, ideals, and methods of interpersonal relation. As will be shown later, language at this early age is learned by imitation; young children would not learn the lan-

guage if the other members of the household did not use it in their contacts with the child and with each other. Children soon learn to identify the various inflections or tone of voice with which different persons speak at different times; and they can soon determine whether a person is angry, scolding, joking, or kindly. Children likewise learn to read facial expressions associated with different tones of voice. What is said, how it is said, and to whom it is said constitute important elements in the child's environment. Language, manners, attitudes, and techniques in dealing with others are learned from the way in which others deal and speak with the child and with each other.³

Objects in the home. Since children learn through interacting with the elements in their environment, the various objects in the home become important educational factors. The child's motor development is a major factor in determining the ways in which the child can interact with the objects in his environment. Kavin wrote as follows:

Research studies of young infants have indicated that motor development takes place in an orderly sequence which is consistently characteristic of practically all babies. The infant's earliest motor control is over his eye movements, then over his head and neck muscles. Gradually his control moves downward to shoulder, arm, trunk, and legs. Furthermore, this muscular control moves outward from shoulder to finger tips and from hips to toes, so that the finer, more specific play movements requiring precise finger or toe control do not appear until later than the more general movements of arms, hands, and legs.⁴

The objects with which the child makes contact in the home may be thought of in three groups. The first group consists of those objects or articles used in meeting the child's physical needs. These include his clothes, his bed, the bath equipment, the utensils used in feeding, the bathroom and its fixtures, the dining room and its equipment, including the tablecloth, dishes, and eating utensils, the kitchen and its appurtenances, and the baby carriage and similar articles.

The second group of objects in the home consists of household furnishings, other than those previously mentioned, that are not used directly in serving the child's physical needs. In this group are such articles as the living-room furniture, dressers, occasional or tea tables, floor and table lamps, books and bookcases, magazines and newspapers, pictures on tables, dressers, or walls, and various other articles commonly found in the home. By age three the child has become sufficiently ambulatory so that he moves about touching, playing with, handling,

³ For further detail on the family group, see Frances B. Strain, *Your Child, His Family and Friends* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943).

⁴ Ethel Kavin, *The Wise Choice of Toys* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934), pp. 26-28.

or climbing upon these various articles. Through his own explorations, the observation of various family uses of these articles, and instruction or admonition by members of the family, the child gradually acquires a knowledge of the names and uses of these articles in the home.

The third group of objects in the home consists of toys. Special mention is made of toys because they are very important in the child's life. Kavin classified toys into nine categories, as follows: (1) toys for the infant before he can walk, (2) toys for the development of strength and skill, (3) toys for constructive and creative play, (4) toys for dramatic and imitative play, (5) toys for social development, (6) toys for artistic development (arts and crafts), (7) toys that stimulate knowledge and aid in school activities, (8) toys leading to an interest in science and mechanics, and (9) toys to encourage hobbies and special interests.⁵ Some of these types of toys, of course, are not suitable for the child under three years of age but the complete list indicates the various ways in which toys contribute to the child's growth and development. An essential point to establish here is that playing with toys is an extremely important feature of the child's education, not only during his first three years but during his first twelve or more.⁶

Playmates. Young babies are typically unsocial. For the first month or two the baby is not interested in people. At two to two and one-half months the baby begins to watch people, is attracted by their movements, and will smile in response to the smiles or conversation of others. At the age of five months most babies begin to notice other babies and children. By the age of nine months there appear definite signs of social behavior as evidenced by the fact that the baby offers toys to others, babbles to them, resents being ignored, pulls at the clothing of other people, and in every way possible tries to attract and hold the attention of others. Toward the end of the first year a baby normally begins to notice differences between familiar and unfamiliar faces.

During the later part of the second year the child becomes interested in play with other children. By the age of three years children begin actually to play with children of their own age or of slightly older age, and there are signs of real cooperation in their play.⁷ During the child's third year of life, the need for companions becomes very evident. From then on children develop rapidly in sociability, if by

⁵ *Ibid.*, Chap. 4.

⁶ For further details on kinds and uses of toys at various age levels, see Rose H. Alschuler, *Two to Six* (New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1937), Chap. 3, Charlotte G. Garrison and Emma D. Sheehy, *At Home with Children* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1943), Chap. 4, Hazel Kepler, *The Child and His Play* (New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1952), Chap. 3.

⁷ Elizabeth B. Hurlock, *Child Development* (2d ed., New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950), pp. 291-295, 305.

that, one means the increase in their desire for companionship, so that by the time children can walk adeptly, they crave companions. Children prefer to play with other children rather than with adults. Children turn to adults for certain kinds of play that the children enjoy very much, but that other children are unable to provide. Children's predominant preference, however, is for other children of about the same age.

When children first have other children for companions, they do not play *with* them so much as *alongside* them. This is commonly called "parallel" play.⁹ The tendency is for each child to play by himself with whatever toys he has selected, but he wants to do his own playing in the presence of other children. Each child seems to take pride in "showing off" what he can do, and this requires an audience. Parallel play provides many occasions for interstimulation and suggestion, which lead to new forms of play by each member of the group.

Since children after the age of about two years become extremely social and crave the companionship of other children, playmates constitute an important factor in the child's educative environment. Children motivate each other in so many ways and learn so much from each other that one can hardly overstress the role of playmates, especially congenial playmates, in the child's development. Playmates make their most important contributions to the child's intellectual and social development, although their contribution to physical and emotional development should not be overlooked.

Activities of family living. The typical household is a busy place in which people are doing and planning things all the time. Household routines are attended to; the children are cared for; the clothing of the various members of the family is worn, brushed, cleaned, washed, ironed, mended, or stored in proper places; meals are prepared and eaten; games are played; guests are entertained; hundreds of topics are discussed in conversation; and so on through a long list of activities of family living. The scope and character of these activities depend upon the economic, social, and educational status of the members of the household, the size of the home, the number and types of persons who make up the family group, and a variety of other factors that differ from one home to another.

But regardless of the specific characteristics of a given home, the child lives in the midst of these many ongoing activities. During most of the first two years of a child's life, the activities in which he participates are limited largely to those that minister directly to his needs; but even in being fed, bathed, clothed, and entertained, the child rapidly acquires familiarity with the objects and articles used and with the ways

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 296.

in which things are done. The conventional routines of living are thus acquired by the child through the simple process of repetition.

After the child has learned to see fairly well, to hear fairly well, to talk a little, and to walk, he becomes a much more extensive participant in the activities of family life. Invariably the child is so ever-present that frequently he gets in the way or, in order to avoid a fuss, his inclusion in an activity must be accepted and planned. Toward the end of the third year, many children insist on helping with some of the household routines; the cushions may be pulled off the davenport or the cups placed upside down on the table or even dropped on the floor, but the child is definitely trying to help, and by so doing he becomes an active participant in the activities of the home.

But even if the child is not an active participant in the usual sense of the word, his ubiquitousness makes him a participant even if he appears to be a bystander. His alert eyes and ears do not miss much of what is going on around him. One of the things that amazes parents most is that several days or even weeks after the occurrence of a certain event, the child will recall it vividly; in most such cases the adults thought the child was not noticing or did not understand. Many are the mothers who have been embarrassed by the fact that the child wandered over to the neighbors and repeated some uncomplimentary remark that the mother had let slip about them. Children are really extensive participants in practically all the activities of family living, and from such participation they adopt the customary modes of doing and saying things and the opinions, attitudes, and ideals expressed by the members of the family group. Children are born into the ongoing culture of the family, neighborhood, and community. The first learnings of children are the essential features of today's culture, not the historical background of how we developed.

In many homes the parents make deliberate efforts to read stories to their children and to provide music in various forms as well as songs suitable to the child under three years of age.*

The broader environment. Another major phase of the child's activities and contacts during his first three years consists of interaction with the broader environment outside the home. Before the child can walk, he is taken outdoors on many occasions. Sometimes the child is placed outside in a carriage or basket for sun baths or while the parent is engaged in outdoor tasks. At other times the child is taken along to the grocery store, or more extended trips downtown, or on visits to friends or relatives. After the child has learned to walk, he may play

*For detailed list of books, stories, and music appropriate for children of different ages, see Garrison and Sheehy, *op. cit.*, Chaps. 6, 7, Helen Heffernan (ed.), *Guiding the Young Child* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1952), pp. 285-325, Kepler, *op. cit.*, Chaps. 5, 8.

The Child's Second Three Years

During the second three years of life the child continues the types of growth and development that are already under way. Growth and development are gradual. There are no sharp breaks or sudden changes from month to month or from year to year. Each stage of growth gradually emerges into new stages in such imperceptible ways that one is apt to be unaware of the changes unless one has not been with the child for several months or more. The only justification for dividing the discussion in this book into three age periods, such as the child's first three years, the child's second three years, and the elementary school age, is to reduce the length of the treatment and still give the reader a vivid picture of the progression and unfolding of the child's growth and development. Each new stage or degree of maturation enables the child to do things that he formerly could not do and thus enables him to use or to interact with his environment in new ways. As the child is enabled to deal differently with his environment, the environment functions differently in his education. The elements of the environment may be the same as they were before, that is, to outward appearances; but the fact that the child's use of the environment is different from what it was before actually makes it a different environment. In other words, the child's educative use of his surroundings is continuously changing as his growth and development are bringing about continuous changes in him.

Let us now examine the major features of the child's educative environment during his second three years of life.

Persons in the household. Although there is no scientific evidence to prove the point, it is probably true that throughout life the individual learns more from other people than he does from any other source. People are important in our lives in so many ways that it is only natural that we should learn much from them. This is part of the reason why persons in the household play a more significant role during the child's second three years of life than they did during the first three years, even though their role during the first three years was very important.

A second factor which increases the importance of persons in the household as the child moves from the age of three to the age of six is the fact that the child himself is becoming more social. Between the ages of two and five, children go through several stages of development in their social relations with adults. During the first two years of life, the child is dependent on adults for attention and assistance and is fairly passive in his attitude toward them. By the age of two and one-half or

three years the child becomes self-assertive in his desire for independence and begins to resist adult influence. He gradually becomes more cooperative and friendly, and at the age of four or five seeks the approval and tries to avoid the disapproval of adults.¹³

As previously stated, the adults in the family circle play a changing role in the child's life as the child passes from age three to age six. Although the mother is still the most prominent person in the group, the father's role becomes much more extensive than it was during the child's first three years. The child is now old enough to play a few simple games; and while the mother is busy with the meals, the father plays with the child. Simple games of rolling a ball or marbles, hide-and-go-seek, and frolicking on the floor or the lawn can now be enjoyed by both the father and the child. Frequently the father will bring home a new toy or take the family for a ride in the automobile. Many of the interesting activities are possible only when father is home, so that the child associates many of his enjoyments with the father. The father's role as a disciplinarian also begins to evolve during this age period. The fact that children begin to seek approval at this time helps to bring the father into the picture more prominently; the mother may have become tired of complimenting the child on how well he can negotiate the basement steps, but when the father comes home the child has another audience to whom he can display his achievements. The father has thus assumed a much more active part in the child's educative environment.¹⁴ Children who are denied this contact with their fathers are deprived of a very important phase of their educative environment. This deprivation may be due to death or divorce; or perhaps absence from home due to business demands or compulsory service in the armed forces.

Since the child is seeking approval, he is likely to take advantage of every occasion to stage demonstrations when relatives or guests visit at the home. The guests may be bored, but they manifest grim courtesy. If the child's antics interfere with the conversation of the adults, the parents may reprimand the child or banish him from the room. If the parents are very indulgent, they may encourage the child to perform his tricks and brag about him in his presence. These two opposite methods of dealing with the situation obviously have different effects upon the growing child. These kinds of situations seldom occur during the child's first three years because the child is not mature enough to perform for an audience, but the whole problem illustrates clearly how the environment changes as the child matures and how the role of

¹³ From a research study by Bridges as quoted by Hurlock, *op. cit.*, pp. 295-296.

¹⁴ Ruth J. Tasch, "The Role of the Father in the Family," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 20 (June, 1952), 319-361.

the child is now old enough to engage in many activities and to use many articles about the home, there will develop cooperative play among the children as well as many quarrels. The younger child will want some of the toys that the older siblings wish to use, or the younger child will tip over or wreck things built by older siblings. In some homes where parental supervision is inadequate, these quarrels may result in unfortunate reactions in the younger child; whereas in other homes the older children will have been taught how to deal encouragingly with the younger child and will assign him roles that he can enjoy without interfering with the ongoing activities. The latter type of situation provides many wholesome learning opportunities for both the younger and the older children.

The addition of a new baby to the family creates new problems for older siblings. How the child between the ages of three and six has been prepared for the coming of the new baby and for his own role in the family after the new baby has arrived is important. Sometimes the child of three or more years has been made an active participant in the family's planning for the new baby and in its care. In other homes just the opposite has happened, and the older child soon develops resentment over the coming of the new baby. Obviously the older child's role in the family changes when a new baby arrives; but how the older child feels about it, what degree of participation he enjoys, and how the parents manage their continued attention to the older child has a great deal to do with the way this new factor in the child's environment affects him and his education.

Nonmembers of the family circle also play a new role in the child's education during the age period from three to six. The change in the role of "outsiders" is due largely to the fact that the child's added maturity enables him to respond differently to other persons. Among the nonmembers of the family with whom the child makes contacts are playmates, relatives, friends of the family, barbers, dentists, physicians, nurses, photographers, shopkeepers of all kinds, traffic officers, and a wide array of other individuals and groups. A long story could be told, with hundreds of amusing or pathetic anecdotes, of the different ways in which different individuals relate themselves to children. Some understand children and encourage their wholesome expression of interests; others are abrupt, don't want to be bothered, and tease or scold. Each type of adult conduct elicits certain kinds of responses from a particular child and leaves its impact upon the child's growing personality.¹⁴

¹⁴For further details on the points, see Frances B. Strain, *Your Child, His Family and Friends* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943), Chaps. 10, 11.

Objects in the home. In a preceding section in this chapter it was pointed out that during the child's first three years his interaction with objects in the home was conditioned to a large extent by his physical capacities, that is, the facility with which he could crawl, walk, and use his arms, hands, and legs. Degree of physical development is also important in the age period from three to six, but the fact that the child now can handle his body quite skillfully and can use his arms and hands to do many things enables him to use objects in the home in a manner quite different from his former one. Also, he is able to deal with many objects that once were too big or too small for him. His educative environment, as far as objects in the home are concerned, has broadened a great deal. The social and mental development that has accompanied his physical growth obviously contributes to his increasing ability to deal more broadly and in a wider variety of ways with the material part of his surroundings.

The physical features in the home—his bed, the bathroom, his clothes, kitchen and table ware—which serve to meet the child's physical needs, continue to be used in about the same ways as during the preceding age period except for one important difference: the child has now achieved relative independence in their use. He can go to the bathroom by himself; he can feed himself; and he can do most of his own dressing and undressing. He can crawl into the crib or bed unassisted and can pull the covers over himself. This difference in the child's relation to objects and articles in the home is an important one. The child is no longer submitting to the application of these material things; he has risen above mere application and has now become master of their use. He himself can command, control, and direct their use. He thus has an entirely new relation to these elements of his environment and, in turn, these elements serve him in new ways.

Other household furnishings also serve in new ways as the child moves from the age of three toward the age of six. In the earlier age period it was largely a matter of the child's getting acquainted with the various articles of furniture and other items of household equipment. The business of "getting acquainted" continues during the age period from three to six, but its scope and importance are on a diminishing scale. Their actual use in life activities and in play evolves now on an increasing scale. By the age of three the child knows what a chair is and what its normal use is. Between the ages of three and six, the child *uses* chairs in many ways in his various activities, and experiments with new and frequently unapproved uses. Chairs are turned upside down, piled on top of each other, or stood upon. Again one recognizes the child's ascendancy in personal control over the *use* of the household furnishings.

The child's use of household furnishings is further illustrated by his ingenious improvisations with sheets, blankets, pillows, pots and pans, by his insatiable urge to take things apart. Card tables and chairs are used to support sheets or blankets to make houses or tents. The pots



"But, Mother, we are just making a rocket ship."

and pans are scattered, not only all over the kitchen but all over the house, the yard, and the sand pile. Mother's sterling silver spoons and fancy cocktail glasses are ideal for digging and playing in the sand pile. Nothing that the child can lay his hands on is sacred; and objects that can be taken apart are sure to be disassembled and the pieces scattered all over the place, some of them never to be seen again.

The content of the preceding paragraph clearly implies the many forms of play of the child during this age period. Play continues to be the most important thing children do. Hurlock classified early childhood play into three categories: (1) free, spontaneous play, (2) make-believe play, and (3) constructive play.¹⁸ The free, spontaneous type of play disappears to a large extent toward the end of the second year, while the make-believe and constructive types emerge at about age two and then blossoms forth between ages two and six. Children under three years of age, in make-believe play, show a predominant interest in personification, such as talking to dolls or inanimate objects, or playing

¹⁸ Hurlock, *op. cit.*, pp 344-349

games involving imagined creatures such as a bogeyman. Other make-believe play of the child under three is associated with the use of materials, including the imaginative naming of objects, as calling a slide a train or drinking from an empty cup.

After the age of three make-believe play includes less personification, and the various types of materials are used in increasingly more complicated ways. Children's play between the ages of three and six also includes make-believe situations, constructive activities with raw materials, and dramatic play of a more or less complicated type. Hurlock, in the reference just cited, summarized the patterns of imaginative play, as revealed in a study by Murphy, into the following groups: (1) domestic patterns (including the various forms and activities of playing house), (2) selling and buying, (3) transportation (imaginary rides on many kinds of objects), (4) punishing (gun play and playing policeman), (5) burning and playing fireman, (6) killing and dying (especially prominent during war), (7) playing the part of legendary persons like Santa Claus.

Play in the yard near the home becomes extremely important between the ages of three and six. The child of this age period likes the spaciousness that the out-of-doors affords, allowing him plenty of room to run and jump and plenty of space in which to perform with the larger kinds of toys which he now prefers. A sandbox, a low swing with an attached seat, a low seesaw, boards, large blocks, and safe things on which to climb are highly desirable homemade toys. Three-year-olds like cylinders to be fitted into a wooden block, blocks of wood, and brilliantly colored pieces of wood that can be matched and arranged in pairs or rows. Four-year-olds have a definite preference for blocks that can be used for construction; they also like the sandbox, kiddy cars, and seesaws. Toys for a child of this age should not be complete and perfect or of the type that the child can only watch; the child wants to *do* things with toys. Toys should have the capacity for being moved, changed, and manipulated. The child wants to *interact* with his toys.

Playmates. By the age of three years children for the first time actually play *with* other children of their own age or slightly older. Parallel play begins to give way to cooperative play. No doubt this change toward cooperative play is enhanced by the fact that the child now can handle his body fairly well and can talk well enough to carry on a conversation. There is also the factor of space. Now that the child plays outdoors more there is room for several playmates.

The size of the play group increases with age, ranging from two members at the age of three to three or four members at the age of six. The types of toys provided and the space available for play determine

to some extent how many neighbors' children will come over to play and the types of play that take place. The fact that children of this age period can do so many more things than they formerly could and can talk so much better permits a greatly increased amount of intermotivation among the members of the play group. The scope of content in children's play, if one may use that expression, has broadened greatly, thereby broadening the child's educative environment and increasing the nature and variety of possible learnings.

During the age period from three to six there are several new types of associations with other children. Most parents arrange for birthday parties for their children; these in turn lead to the child's being invited to other children's birthday parties. The social convention of giving and receiving presents thus begins to enter the child's life. Some children start Sunday school before the age of six and thus come in contact with larger groups of children in organized activities under the direct guidance of an adult. Some children attend nursery schools or kindergartens and thus have their contacts with other children extended beyond the neighborhood play groups.

Activities of family living. Although he may need some further assistance and supervision, the typical five-year-old has become fairly independent in those activities of living pertaining to his physical needs of eating, dressing and undressing, going to the toilet, and bathing, thus taking his place in family life in these respects like most other members of the household. His ability to do these things on his own in accordance with accepted practice is evidence of the extent and effectiveness of his induction into the culture. Educationally the child has made significant progress in attaining some of the objectives of education.

The child's ability to talk freely and his gross unfamiliarity with his environment prompt him during this age period to talk constantly and to ask thousands of questions. In fact, most children ask so many questions each day that by night their mothers are worn out by answering. This constant conversation and the continuous barrage of questions afford marvelous channels for enhancing language development and expanding general information. Again one sees evidence of the child's moving toward the attainment of certain objectives of education.

Children's participation in family conversation is much more extensive now than it was in earlier generations. They listen intently and have no hesitancy about interrupting at any point, either by a question, by an additional bit of information, or by correcting an error someone has made in a statement. By stern methods and from a firm conviction that children should be seen but not heard, some parents completely stifle the child's effort at being a participant in the conversation. Others overindulge the child to the point where the child always

holds the center of the stage and all conversation in the home must revolve around what the child wants to discuss. A more appropriate course is somewhere between these two extremes and consists of a plan whereby the child is gently and courteously led to understand and to appreciate some of the elementary courtesies in group conversation. Such a course of action gradually encourages the child to adopt the usual conventions in conversation, thereby taking another important step in his induction into the culture.

The age period from three to six is one in which children develop an increasing interest in having stories read to them. They also begin to look at pictures in the magazines that come to the home. Listening to the radio as an activity of family living is fast being replaced by watching television. Not only do young children spend many hours viewing programs with older members of the family; they also spend many daytime hours alone before the television set. Shayon¹⁷ reports a United Parents Association Survey in New York City that indicated that the heaviest child viewing of TV is in the age group of five to six years; these children watch television on the average of four hours a day. Most of the programs viewed by these preschool children are adult programs; a study completed in 1952 revealed that only one station had entertainment planned specifically for preschool children—one-half an hour a day.¹⁸ The educational potentialities of television can be clearly seen, but adverse effects can also be foreseen. Yet to be determined are the far-reaching effects of the long hours of inactivity on the physical and emotional well-being of preschool children.

Nevertheless, in play the child is less interested in being entertained and in pure manipulation and now seeks an active role as a "member of the team." The child, too, wants to join such simple games as hide-and-go-seek, bouncing the ball, playing horse, and rolling marbles.

Another category of family activities in which the child of this age period is a more extensive participant consists of the more common household tasks. The child is now able to sweep the porch, run the vacuum cleaner, help set the table, carry out the dishes after meals, pick up toys, wipe dishes, and do many other little tasks. As yet, the child is not able to perform any of these tasks as well as an adult; but the child is eager to help, sometimes because he cannot think of anything else to do and sometimes because he is seeking approval from the adult. In any event, through participation and the accompanying guidance and instruction from the parent the child is learning how

¹⁷ Robert Lewis Shayon, *Television and Our Children* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1951), p. 19.

¹⁸ Paul Witty and Harry Brickner, *Your Child and Radio, TV, Comics, and Movies* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1952), p. 14.

these various activities of family living are carried out. The child's education is progressing rapidly.

The broader environment. As the child moves through the age period from three to six his environment outside the home and back yard broadens rapidly. Contacts with barbers, dentists, physicians, and shopkeepers have already been mentioned. Travel in its many forms widens the child's sphere of contacts in a twofold way: chances are that the child is taken to more places and to places farther and farther away; the child in turn, because of his increasing maturity, is able to profit more from his travel. New places, objects, and scenes that the child had never seen or heard of before now become accessible to him, not only in the geographical sense, but also on the level of interaction. Rivers, hills, mountains, fields, crops, trees—all come into conscious vision and evoke many questions.

The animal and insect world gradually gains reality to the extent that the six-year-old can identify and name most of the animals and insects especially common in a given locality. Hundreds of questions are asked about the various new things in the environment. The fact that these questions are asked by the child is evidence that the new things have become recognized realities in his life and that genuine interaction between the child and elements of the environment is taking place.

In the realm of new contacts in the broader environment mention should be made of family picnics, fishing trips, and the like. Going to the neighborhood stores to buy an ice-cream cone, a lollypop, or a loaf of bread is well within the scope of the five-year-old and brings him into a new kind of relation with streets, stores, and shopkeepers.

Toward the end of this age period, children, individually or in groups, will explore or play on vacant lots or in nearby woods. Such excursions bring them into close contact with whatever elements of nature the particular places have to offer.

The church and religious education. Another influence that begins to affect most children between the ages of three and six is the result of participation in the religious practices of the home and, to some extent, in the activities of the church. Hurlock pointed out that a child's religious education is a product of his environment and is accomplished partly by the example set by parents and partly by direct, *formal religious instruction in the home, Sunday school, or church.*¹⁹ Practically all children are introduced to some phases of religion during preschool years as a result of activities in the home, but the amount and type of home instruction vary a great deal. In some homes, a care-

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 473.

fully planned program of religious instruction, which for the very young child merely involves passive participation in the family religious activities, later takes the form of direct teaching. These family religious practices consist of saying grace at mealtime, prayers at bedtime, and going to church on Sunday. Some time between ages three and six these activities are supplemented by reading Bible stories to the children and having them memorize prayers and Bible verses and stories.²⁰ In addition to the religious practices associated with major religious holidays, such as Christmas and Easter, the preschool child may also have witnessed those accompanying baptisms, confirmations, marriages, and deaths within the circle of family and relatives.

The church supplements whatever religious instruction is given in the home. Many churches have Sunday school groups for preschool children. Although the amount of religious instruction in these preschool groups is not large, such a program does bring the child into regular contact with the church and thus constitutes another element in the child's educative environment. In addition to providing some religious instruction, Sunday school gives opportunity for social development; the preschool child has a chance to be with others of his own age group where, under the guidance of understanding adults, he learns some of the rudiments of group living, such as participating in group activities and being a member of a listening group for brief periods. Such experiences are valuable in preparation for entrance to school.

Nursery schools and kindergartens. At present only a small proportion of children between the ages of three and five have the opportunity to attend a nursery school and only about one-third of five-year-olds attend kindergartens; but, for those who do attend, the nursery school or kindergarten is an important element in their total environment.

Although the kindergarten was first introduced into the public schools in 1873,²¹ there are comparatively few states today that include the kindergarten as a part of the school system. It is only since the beginning of the twentieth century that the nursery school has gained much impetus in this country. Prior to 1930, the majority of nursery schools were established by institutions of higher learning to be used as centers of research. Some nursery schools then, as now, were established as private schools, some in social settlements as day nurseries, and some in teacher-education institutions. In the third decade of the

²⁰ Mary C. Odell, *Our Little Child Faces Life* (New York: Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1939), Chap. 5.

²¹ Ilse Forest, *Early Years at School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949), p. 25.

century federally subsidized nursery schools enabled many children to profit from nursery school experience who could not have attended the private schools. Soon after these schools were discontinued, World War II created a new demand for nursery schools as more and more women went into industry. The federal government, through the Lanham Act, and the legislatures of various states made funds available for nursery schools, many of which were operated by the public schools. Although most of these nursery schools are not in existence today, they have served as a means of awakening the people to the benefits of preschool education.²²

The present status of schools for preschool children is somewhat chaotic. Although there are some such schools supported by state funds, the majority are under private auspices and therefore are not always regulated by educational standards. For this reason parents who plan to send their children to these schools should become acquainted with criteria for judging schools for young children.²³

A nursery school or kindergarten makes many contributions to the growing child: the child is enabled to acquire independence in a variety of ways; he develops a new relation with his parents, particularly with his mother; he comes in contact with other children in a semicontrolled and guided situation. Types of toys and other media not available in the typical home now become accessible to him. The use of these media by other children motivates him to imitate what he has seen; thus the child is led to new types of experiences. The general setting of the preschool unit is such that the child is continuously encouraged to become more independent and responsible for the care of his own physical needs. In general, the nursery school or kindergarten can be an unusually constructive phase of the child's environment.

The Child at the Age of Six

The child at six is much more of a full-fledged person than most people realize. He is an individual personality in a very real sense, with ideas, plans, and decisions of his own. The child's height may range between somewhat less than 41 inches to somewhat over 46 inches. Weight may range between 35 and 48 pounds. Practically all body

²² The history of the nursery school was summarized from Roma Gans, Celia Burns Sandler, and Millie Almy, *Teaching Young Children* (Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1952), Chap. 3.

²³ For descriptions of good schools for preschool children, see Texas Education Agency, *Schools for Young Children*, Bulletin No. 539 (Austin, Tex.: Texas Education Agency, February, 1953); Heffernan, *op cit.*, Appendix II, p. 257; Emma D. Sheehy, *The Fives and Sixes Go to School* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1954).

types are represented among six-year-olds; some are tall and slender, some are short and stocky, while others manifest other variations.

The child handles his body skillfully at six years of age. He skips and dances, climbs trees, and turns somersaults. He can throw a ball fairly well. He can jump rope, balance himself on a rail or on the top of a board wall. He can walk along a chalk mark and skate on four-wheeled skates. His sense of rhythm has developed to the point where he can keep time to music, beat time with his hands or feet, and walk or skip to music. Finer types of motor coordination are represented by the child's ability to carry a pitcher of milk or water without spilling, to draw lines and diagrams and to trace, and to write certain letters of the alphabet or even to write his name in full or in part.

In mental development the six-year-old is quite different from the three-year-old. The average six-year-old has a vocabulary of 2,500 words. Sentence length has increased from an average of 1.7 words at the age of two to 5 words at the age of six. Compound and complex sentences now constitute from 2 to 5 per cent of the total number of sentences. The vocabulary includes words of all kinds, such as nouns, pronouns, verbs. The idea of word differentiation has been well established. The speech of the six-year-old is at least as correct as that of the adults with whom he associates.

The mental maturity of the six-year-old is reflected further in the areas of reason and judgment, attention span, and memory. Seeing relations, that is, reasoning and judging, are called for in adapting to new situations. Persons who have made a special effort to observe reason and judgment in children of this age are usually amazed at the amount and quality of reasoning the children can do. It is surprising how well children can figure things out if the adults will give them a chance. Most six-year-olds are able to distinguish between "heavy" and "light," and they realize that the size and shape of an object does not necessarily determine its weight. Six-year-olds are fairly adept at putting together simple puzzles. The amount and complexity of make-believe play and dramatization engaged in by six-year-olds, as well as the large variety and complexity of the things they can do, are other indexes of their mental maturity. The child at this age likes to hear longer stories and can repeat well stories he has heard or that he has made up. Many six-year-olds want to learn to read and write and some have actually made some progress along these lines.

Socially the child at the age of six has adopted many of the adult conventions, which he carries out with reasonable proficiency. At the table the child eats quietly with his mouth closed while chewing; he uses fork and spoon skillfully and rarely uses his fingers; and he seldom upsets his milk. He uses a handkerchief and turns his face aside when

coughing or sneezing. Property rights have begun to become meaningful; "findings" are no longer "keepings" and he makes clear distinctions between what is his and what belongs to others. Crying has become infrequent. Cooperative social relations are evident in the types and amount of group play. Most six-year-olds can interpret the attitude or intentions of adults by tone of voice or facial expression. Skill in maneuvering others into doing what the child wants them to do has reached an interestingly high level. He has begun to learn the art of making friends and influencing people.

The emotional development of the six-year-old presents a picture quite different from that of the child under three. Such primitive expressions of anger as kicking, stamping of feet, screaming, crying, throwing objects, struggling, biting, and refusing to budge are gradually fading from the scene. Fears, increasing and changing with general intellectual development and the child's ability to control the environment, become more specific and differentiated between the ages of two and six. Children at all ages need affection, and the six-year-old seeks affection from an increasingly wider circle of acquaintances. The increasing desire for approval and security in an ever expanding world of new and strange things makes it all the more imperative that adults recognize this need in children and conduct themselves accordingly.

The Educational Factors in the Child's Growth and Development

At this point in the discussion it seems well to consider three questions. How did the child make this astonishing progress? Why did he learn the things he did learn rather than some other things he might have learned? What prompted the members of the family group to teach the child certain things rather than certain others that might have been taught? Answers to these questions are basic to an understanding of education.

As one compares the three-year-old with the infant at birth, one admires with amazement the abilities and achievements of the three-year-old. Similar astonishment arises when one compares the six-year-old with the three-year-old. How did the child learn all these things? As stated before, the child himself was growing and developing throughout this six-year period and the gradual increase in his size and musculature, the maturation of his organs and functions, and the development of his various capacities gave him the physical basis for taking advantage of the opportunities for growth that his environment offered. Because he was able to take advantage of these opportunities he responded to and interacted with the various features of the environ-

ment in a way that contributed to his own growth and development on a graduated and ever widening scale. Each increment of progress enabled him thereafter to use his environment in new and broader ways. It is like making a snowball. As the snowball itself gets bigger and bigger, it takes on increasingly wider areas of the layer of snow ahead of it and as each layer of snow is added to the snowball, the snowball itself becomes changed. The child's continued use of or interaction with his environment produces experiences for the child, and it is out of these experiences that further growth and development occur. Learning takes place that way.

There are several reasons why the child learned what he did rather than some other things that he might have learned. In the first place, the child's capacities operated as a major control of what could be learned. The child at the age of three has learned to walk and to run a little, but as yet he cannot hop or skip or do a broad jump because he does not yet have the necessary physical capacities. In like manner he can talk in short sentences about the things he has experienced frequently; he cannot yet speak in lengthy sentences about objects or events remote in space or time. At each succeeding age level the child's learnings are conditioned by his capacities and degree of maturity. Children of the same age differ widely in their learnings and their capacities.

Another factor that influences what the child learns during the first six years of life is the scope and variety of his environment. A child provided with one toy has fewer opportunities to learn a variety of things than has a child with ten toys. The child of a family living in a one-room house with a dirt floor and little in the way of furniture has fewer opportunities for learning than has the child of a family living in a modern six- or eight-room house with the usual equipment and appurtenances. This list could be extended almost indefinitely, but enough has probably been said to indicate clearly that the scope and variety of things, persons, and events that appear in a child's environment during his first years of life have a great deal to do with what he learns or has a chance to learn.

The content of his environment is also a selective factor in learning. A given child's life during the first six years may have contained the same categories of activities as that of other children but in this particular case the content may have been quite different. For example, in one home the family dines together at the dining room table covered with a tablecloth; each person has his own napkin; and courtesy, congeniality, and good manners are customary. In another home the family eats around an uncovered table in crowded quarters in the kitchen, without tablecloth or napkins, and with constant bickering.

discourtesy, and ill manners prevailing. In both cases the child's environment contains the activity of eating meals with the family gathered around the table, but it is obvious that quite different learnings may result from those two situations. In similar fashion the content of the child's environment may differ in respect to the members who make up the family circle and how they live and deal with each other and with the child, in respect to the objects in the home, the activities of family living, playmates, and the broader environment. All the major aspects of the environment may be present in every home, but the content of each phase may differ so that there are hardly two children who have identical educative environments during these early years.

The fourth factor in the child's environment that affects his learning is the way in which the child is allowed or encouraged to interact with the various elements of the environment and the way in which the child is dealt with. Gruff language, continuous scolding, whippings, and a barrage of "don'ts" cause the child to react in certain ways, whereas mild language, thoughtful encouragement, kind directions, explanations, and assistance will elicit quite a different set of responses from the child. The way in which the child is introduced to and helped to participate in the various activities of family living will have a great deal to do with what the child learns. The way in which the child is encouraged to use or deal with the objects in the home will also influence the nature of the child's learnings. Some children jump and climb on the furniture, whereas others develop habits and attitudes of proper use and care of household furnishings. Some children tend to break everything, whereas others become careful and nondestructive. Frequently these differences in children are due to the way in which parents deal with them and the way in which they are taught to use the available resources. Method is thus an important feature of a child's educative environment.

The fifth control over what the child learns during his first six years of life is the geography of his birthplace. The term "geography" is used here to mean the culture of the people into whose midst the child is born, as well as the physical features of the geographical area. These two aspects are interrelated because the geographical features of a region determine in large measure what people do for a living and how they live. The culture of the Eskimo is thus very different from the culture of the people in Florida.

Several features of the geography of a child's birthplace warrant special mention. The physical features of the region come to mind first. Some children live on the seacoast, so that a large body of water, ships, boats, and fishing or heavy industries loom large in the child's

environment. Other children spend their first six years in an inland area where vast stretches of land, farms, highways, forests, and crops are important. Children living in apartments in large cities are familiar with stairways, elevators, busy streets, perhaps subways, and they have no yard in which to play. Children who live in Minnesota experience snow, ice, and cold weather, which are practically unknown to children in many portions of Texas.

The geographical features of an area also affect the selection of toys and the composition of household furnishings. Similarly, the geography of the region affects the occupations of people and thus the content of their interests.

Undoubtedly the major geographical factor is the country in which the child grows up and the prevailing culture of the people in that country. A Mexican child learns Spanish, a German child learns German, while most children in the United States learn English. Alongside the language learned by a particular child are the mores, folkways, basic beliefs, and customs of the people. In short, the culture of a people constitutes a very real and very extensive control over the child's learnings, not only during his first six years of life, but throughout his life. The essential features of the culture are thus major determinants in the child's educative environment.

The last point requires expansion. Children, in the process of growing up, get inducted into the culture of the group. They learn the language; they accept the clothing habits of the group; they acquire the customary manners of greeting, food habits, commonly accepted superstitions, common beliefs, ideals, attitudes, and aspirations of the prevailing culture. Although in the United States, as well as in many other countries, a child's education is not limited to induction into the ongoing culture, one cannot overlook the fact that becoming inducted into the culture of one's group is an important and extensive part of a child's education.

It is out of the essential features of the culture that the objectives of education are derived. For the child under six the analysis is fairly simple. He is taught to eat certain foods because those foods are available, and he must learn to eat them for continued survival. He is taught to wear clothes because in our culture it is thought improper to run around naked. He learns to wear certain kinds of clothing so that he may look like others and not be ostracized because of odd attire. He is taught a certain language because that language is the one commonly used, and he must know it to get along in that culture. In some cultural groups the majority of children are taught the idea of private ownership of property and are taught courtesy, honesty, truthfulness, kind-

ness, and many other traits that are essential aspects of the culture into which they have been born and in which they will have to live and earn a living.

Why do parents teach their children these things? Because the child must become equipped to be an active participant in the cultural group in which he is going to live his life and, in order to do that well, the child must acquire the essential features of the group culture and the skills and proficiencies necessary for sustaining himself in that culture. The essential elements of the culture and the common activities of living thus constitute a real source of educational objectives.

Chapter Summary

The purposes of this chapter were to give the reader (1) a view of the scope of the child's educative environment, (2) some appreciation of the fact that no two children are likely to have identical environments, (3) some appreciation of the fact that the environment changes as the child changes, (4) a partial understanding of the scope and characteristics of child growth and development, (5) some insight into, or a feeling of, the progression and continuity inherent in growth and development, (6) a partial understanding of the way learning takes place, and (7) a beginning insight into the relation between the child and his culture.

The major ideas that were developed in the chapter may be summarized as follows:

1. The child's total educative environment consists of all of his activities and interactions with the persons, objects, events, and physical phenomena in the course of daily living and out of which interaction changes take place in the child.
2. How the child can use or interact with the components of his environment depends upon the degree of maturity the child has reached.
3. The child's educative environment is constantly changing because the child is continuously growing and developing.
4. Child growth and development are manifold; these many phases may be thought of in four broad categories: physical growth, mental growth and development, social development, and emotional development.
5. Learning takes place through the child's interacting with the components of his environment.
6. Growth and development in children are a gradual, continuous process.

7. A good portion of a child's education consists of being inducted into the culture of the group.

8. The culture of the group constitutes an important source of educational objectives.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Bossard, James H. S. *The Sociology of Child Development* (rev. ed.). New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954. Part II, "Facets of Child Life."
2. Gesell, Arnold, and Frances L. Ilg. *Child Development*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949. "The Growing Child," 73-258.
3. Gruenberg, Sidonie Matsner, and Staff of Child Study Association of America. *Our Children Today*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1952. Part II, "The Early Years."
4. Jenkins, Gladys Gardner, Helen Shacter, and William W. Bauer. *These Are Your Children* (expanded ed.). Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1953. Chaps. 1-5.

Suggested Student Activities

1. If you have a sibling or other relative of preschool age, try to be present for an entire day while the child is at home. Make an inventory of all of the human and physical elements of his environment with which the child is in contact; and note what he does, how he reacts, and what abilities he is utilizing in his various activities.

2. Visit or otherwise get in touch with two preschool children who differ in age by two or three years. Formulate some questions that you think would be suitable for both, then ask the same questions of both children. Likewise compare their reactions to toys or other objects.

3. Visit preschool groups of children either in nursery school, kindergarten, or Sunday school. Compare two groups of different ages in regard to the following: (a) conversation, (b) physical activities in which they engage, (c) social development as revealed in play activities.

4. View the film *Your Children's Play* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.). Note (a) the different kinds of play activities engaged in by children of various ages, and (b) the adjustment of the child's activity needs with adult activities in the family.



The Educative Environment of the School-Age Child

As the child grows older his educative environment changes in several respects. The child's increasing maturity enables him to interact differently with the various elements in his environment and to reach out and make contact with features of the environment that formerly were inaccessible to him. Chapter 2 presented descriptions of the child's relations to five major features of the environment during his first three years of life, and seven major features of the environment during the age period from three to six. All these major phases of the environment will be discussed again in such a way as to show the nature of the school-age child's relation to them. These discussions will be supplemented by others relating to new features of the environment that enter the life of the school-age child. The discussions will be restricted to children of elementary school age, that is, children between the ages of six and twelve or thirteen.

Persons in the Household

Within the pattern of culture that prevails in the United States today, the home continues to be the most important educational agency affecting the child. During the child's preschool career a major function of the home was physical care. Obviously the responsibility of the home for food, clothing, and shelter continues throughout the dependency period of childhood and youth, but as the child progresses from the age of five or six through twelve or more, the amount of time the adults need to give to meeting the child's physical needs in the form of direct services to the child diminishes rapidly as the child becomes capable of

looking after himself. The very fact that the child over the age of six can dress himself, can take care of his own toilet needs, can feed himself, and can assume responsibility for going in and out of the house, depending upon the activities engaged in, weather conditions, mealtimes or bedtime, enables him to be fairly independent in these matters and allows the parents to devote their time to other responsibilities. While parents' direct services to meet the child's physical needs gradually approach a very minimum there is a corresponding increase in the scope and variety of the parents' indirect contributions to the child. It is therefore difficult to say whether the parents' role increases or decreases. The one thing that is certain is that the *character* of the parents' role is constantly changing.

During the age period from six to twelve or more the quantity and quality of the home's contribution to a child's education depend primarily on two things: *what* the home has to offer and *how* the members of the household deal with the growing child. In the "what" category the discussion at this point will be limited to the persons in the household; other factors will be treated later. Let us focus first on the parents themselves. What the parents have to offer depends largely on the kind of people they are and on their education. Theoretically one might assume that a home in which both parents are college graduates would have more to offer than a home in which both parents had little formal schooling, but one must not jump to the conclusion that all parents who are college graduates have much to offer or even much more than parents with little formal schooling. Some of the best home training of children takes place in homes in which parents have had little formal education. One's education is not limited to formal schooling, and what a parent has to contribute depends very much upon the kind of person he is. Many of the basic values of our culture can be conveyed to children indirectly through the quality of living in the home. Parents who have a high regard for honesty, sincerity, truthfulness, courtesy, kindness, and like virtues—and practice them in daily living—have much to offer growing children. What kind of person an individual is as well as what he knows determines whether or not he can do much for children.

Grandparents, uncles, aunts, and other adults in the household have a relation to children of this age period similar to that of parents, although there are some differences. Children can get much delight and information from the yarns about olden times told by grandparents. The very presence in the household of older persons gives children an appreciation for aged persons. But discord frequently develops when grandparents attempt to dictate to the parents how they should raise their children or insist on glorifying the "good old days" at the expense of the present. If such conditions prevail, the child is caught in the

cross fire and is likely to become confused and insecure. The environment of the home is thus less constructive than it could be.

Other children in the home are also important factors in the educative environment of the school-age child. Children, imitators par excellence, are motivated by and strive to do what they see older brothers and sisters do. A girl of nine will "powder and primp" because she sees her adolescent sister now in high school spend endless hours in an effort to make herself more attractive. Similarly, a boy of eight or ten will adopt the slang expressions or imitate the habits of the adolescent brother.

Younger brothers and sisters also have a new role in the life of the school-age child, for the school-age child is now mature enough to take an active part in caring for the younger siblings in the family. This increasing assumption of responsibility for the care of the younger siblings frequently develops into a teaching role. It is not uncommon to see eight-, ten-, or twelve-year-olds teaching younger children an endless variety of things. Occasionally several younger children will be gathered into a group and taught games. Playing school and being teacher are other manifestations of the new kind of relation between the school-age child and younger children.

All these interpersonal relations between the school-age child and other members of the household are affected by the general quality of living in the home. If parents have much to offer their children and know enough practical child psychology so that they can deal with their children in wholesome, mutually satisfying ways, the family scene is likely to be one of harmony, serenity, and happiness. The wholesome influence of the parents will permeate the relations that the child has with other adults and with older and younger children in the household. The entire setting will be a wholesome and stimulating one for the school-age child. The factors of interpersonal relations explain in part the significance of *how* the members of the household deal with the child.

Since the school-age child can comprehend practically everything that is said in the home and is eager to participate in every conversation, even to the point of forcing himself into the conversation unless he is deliberately ejected by the adults, he is a full-fledged participant in all family talk. What is said at home, how it is said, and how the child is dealt with in family discussions are thus part of the child's education.

Objects in the Home

In Chapter 2 it was pointed out that by the time a child reaches the age of six he has become acquainted with practically all the articles of furniture and other household equipment and appliances; he has

learned the names of all these articles; and he has become familiar with their major common uses. In fact, the child himself has learned to use, properly as well as otherwise, the majority of objects in the household. The main tasks remaining for the child from six to twelve are (1) improving his skill and facility in using the objects in the household, (2) learning some of their less common uses, (3) becoming adept in figuring out various improvised temporary special uses of different things, such as using a card table for sewing, playing checkers, or a picnic lunch, (4) increasing his understanding of the proper ways in which to use household equipment (such as not bouncing on the beds or using sterling silver spoons in the sandpile), and (5) learning how to care for and to repair articles in the home.

Aside from the articles of general utility there are many other things in the home that the child between six and twelve learns to use. Among these are musical instruments, such as the piano, radio, television, phonograph, and string or wind instruments. Newspapers, magazines, and books now acquire a prominent place in the child's home life. As soon as the child has learned to read he can use printed matter for entertainment as well as for information. One recognizes during this age period a distinct change in the child's relation to the physical make-up of the home, from "getting acquainted and playing with" to more specific uses for a wider range of needs. The trend during this transition period is toward more purposeful uses conceived by the child himself, thus showing increasingly adult type of relation to the physical features of the home. Again one recognizes the rate at which the child is becoming inducted into the culture of the group.

A factor that merits special mention in the present discussion is the influence the household and the use of its equipment have upon building tastes in children. The old proverb that states that many things are caught rather than taught is applicable here. The extent to which good principles of interior decoration have been applied in the choice of colors for walls and ceiling, in the selection of furniture and drapes, in the arrangement of the furniture, and in the use and care of household furnishings has much to do in building good tastes, wholesome attitudes, and socially approved habits in children. In short, the physical attributes of the home continue to be an important part of the child's educative environment.

Play and Playmates¹

Although the school-age child spends many hours away from home, at school and in out-of-school activities, play at home and in the

¹ This section was adapted from Ruth Strang, *An Introduction to Child Study* (3d ed.; New York: The Macmillan Co., 1951), pp. 328-329, 495-499.

neighborhood continues to hold a prominent place in his life. The parallel play of preschool years has largely disappeared. School-age children engage in both individual and group play, and at least two-thirds of their play activities involves more than one person. Some activities are done alone, such as skipping rope and going to the movies, but are enjoyed much more if at least one other person is participating.

Children of six, seven, and eight delight in strenuous physical activity—running, climbing, playing ball, chasing, dancing, skating, building play houses large enough to play in. The interest in hide-and-seek and tag—two typical games of chase—increases from six to nine, when it reaches its height. Eight-year-olds enjoy climbing into high and difficult places. Six- and seven-year-olds especially enjoy skipping, running, trotting, and galloping in time to music. Girls in this age group engage in jumping rope, playing house, playing school, and playing with dolls. Interest in doll play decreases slightly from the sixth to eighth year and suddenly declines after the twelfth year. The play activities popular with six-, seven-, and eight-year-old boys are playing ball, playing tag, playing hide-and-seek, playing horse, playing school, and playing marbles. Playing ball seems to be their favorite game, and its popularity increases with age. The eight-year-old delights in baseball, soccer, and other organized games and insists that his fellow players follow the rules of the game as he interprets them. Young boys' interests in sports follow current seasonal interests. They insist on having complete football and baseball uniforms and "regulation equipment" and spend much time "in season" kicking, running, throwing, and catching. The sex difference characteristic of this age group is in doll play. In our culture only girls play with dolls; also, girls are the ones who jump rope and play such games as "Here we go round the mulberry bush." Playing horse, playing marbles, and playing train seem to be largely boys' games.

After the tenth year there seems to be a decrease in the number of different play activities reported for school-age children. However, individual differences are great: the number of activities ranges from fewer than ten per week for some children to almost one hundred for others. Imaginative play decreases after the age of ten. Girls leave off doll play, although some continue to collect dolls, and boys show a decline in interest in "cow boys" and "space men." However, there is no abrupt cessation of any specific play activity; changes in play interests are gradual. There is a growing interest in the team, which accounts for the increasing popularity, between the ages of nine and sixteen, of ball games, which boys enjoy both as participants and spectators. Boys and girls seem to differ more widely in play interests between nine and twelve than at any other period. Boys tend to engage

in vigorous play stunts, timed races, and other activities involving competition, dexterity, and skill. They will practice long hours in order to acquire desired proficiency. Preadolescent girls enjoy folk dancing and a realistic type of dramatization. They frequently like cooking and sewing. Boys and girls like "table games" and enjoy playing together, especially when there are no boys to play with the boy and no girls to play with the girl.

Play interests, vary to some extent, with the surrounding culture. Some of the play activities popular in tenement districts, such as bonfires, craps, marbles (for keeps), hopscotch, and leaping over milk cans, are not likely to be present in a general list. The play activities of children vary with such factors as physical maturity, personality, the stimulation of other children, amount of practice, success or failure in performance, environmental opportunities to learn and engage in an activity, current fads, and customs.

The essential points to be gleaned from this review of children's play interests pertain to the educational implications inherent in play activities. In the first place, the several kinds of play make various and numerous contributions to the child's individual development. Note, for example, the kinds of skills developed through such activities as roller skating, skipping rope, follow-the-leader, cutting paper figures with scissors, sewing, and coasting on a sled. Compare these skills with the multiple learnings inherent in such activities as playing school, house, or store, building or repairing something, going to the movies, reading, and listening to the record player.

The second important educational implication grows out of children's associations with other children. Eleven-year-olds value play with their peers above all other forms of recreation. No other form of recreation consumes so much of their out-of-school time.² Playmates probably have an increasingly important role as children grow older and as they learn more and more from other children. During the school-age period the learning that comes through play and association with other children is as broad as the whole field of a child's education. Skills of many kinds, mental stimulation and motivation, new kinds of information, social skills, attitudes, ideals, and appreciations—all these are by-products of play and other contacts with children.

Activities of Family Living

As soon as children are old enough to assist in the activities of home life, their participation assumes a sort of dual purpose. They are

²E. Volberding, "Out-of-School Behavior of Eleven-Year-Olds," *Elementary School Journal*, 48 (April, 1948), 432-441.

learning what the activities of family living are and how these activities are carried on; they are also learning the nature of family life so that when they are old enough to establish homes of their own, they will be capable of maintaining and operating one. Both phases are essential features of the child's induction into the culture and an essential part of the child's education.

About a hundred years ago, that is, before industrialization had developed to a high plane in the United States, the home was largely a self-sustaining unit in that most of the articles needed by the family were made by the members of the family or by artisans who lived in the same buildings that housed their shops. In those days children had the opportunity of learning at home many things besides the routines of the household. Wool was handled by the family from the raising of the sheep to the shearing, washing, carding, spinning, weaving, and sewing of garments. Animals were slaughtered and the meat was cut and preserved. Shoes were made and repaired in the home, and so on through a long list of articles and processes. Nearly all the activities of making a living as well as of living were carried on in the home. Children thus had a chance to learn many useful occupations by assisting in the various activities performed by members of the family.

Industrialization gradually changed this whole picture so that at present only a few of the things consumed by the family are actually made by the family. City children of today have practically no opportunity to acquire vocational skills at home. The rural child is not quite so unfortunate in that he can assist with the chores and the work in the fields and thus learn much about farming. This changed situation, which decreased children's educational opportunities at home, created new instructional problems for schools. The need for children's participation in home activities and the relation of the school to this need are facets of the same problem that has been the concern of forward-looking educators for some time.² Even in the machine age the home provides many character-building experiences. Social organizations outside the home are not satisfactory substitutes for certain types of experiences. The home budget, for example, is still the concern of the family. The expenses of the child constitute a small unit in the family budget. While the school may teach the child how to handle money and even how to organize his own budget, the home still controls his actual expenditures. It is difficult, however, for the child to learn to respect his budget and to live within his budget when overindulgent

² The authors owe much of the following discussion to *Character Education*, Tenth Yearbook (Washington: American Association of School Administrators, formerly Department of Superintendence, National Education Association of the United States, 1932), pp. 321-322.

members of his family tempt him to ignore his spending plan by doling out to him money for extras. Again, while the school may stress the desirability of regular habits generally, the home still controls, for example, the child's hours of sleep, his mealtimes, and his time of arriving at school.

Home duties in which the child may participate also still exist in the modern home. True, they are not the duties of the agrarian farmstead. There are no chickens to tend nor bread to bake in the urban bungalow, no fires to build in the metropolitan apartment; nevertheless, homes of the machine age maintain a life that needs organization of some kind. Organization means routine, and the child should have an opportunity to share in maintaining that routine. While it is no longer necessary for the child to participate in the tasks of the home in order to help make the living, by assuming his share of the routine of the home he learns responsibility, persistence, perseverance, self-control, and honesty, qualities that are necessary to ensure the preservation of the larger social unit. To quote from *Character Education*:

The school again enters the picture here, for on some organization must devolve the responsibility for teaching the home-maker that these social reasons for the child's participation in home life are even more urgent than were the economic reasons of the cabin of pioneer days, and that the business of developing a worth-while life for a child should exercise as great a pressure on home processes as did the exigencies incident to the milking of cows and the gathering of eggs in the vanished domestic scene.

The school may have to call the attention of home-makers to the character-building possibilities inherent in those activities which are still a part of home life, and to teach them to reorganize these activities in such a way that children may participate in them and gain character-building experiences from them.⁴

An excellent insight into children's participation in home activities may be gained from a study of 197 girls and 173 boys made by Luecke.⁵ The children included in the study were about equally distributed among the four age groups of nine, ten, eleven, and twelve years. Table 1 gives the details of the participation of nine- and twelve-year-old girls in three major categories. After making a variety of comparisons of the data, Luecke summarized her findings as follows:

⁴ From *Character Education*, Tenth Yearbook (Washington: American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association of the United States, 1932), p. 322. Reprinted by permission.

⁵ Editha Luecke, *Factors Related to Children's Participation in Certain Types of Home Activity*, Contributions to Education, No. 839 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941).

TABLE I

Home Activities of Girls Arranged in Order of Performance*

<i>Nine Years</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Twelve Years</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
A. PERSONAL REGIMEN			
1. Put away toys †	95	Put away toys †	100
2. Put away garment †	95	Put away shoes †	100
3. Hang towel after use †	95	Get clothes ready †	100
4. Put away shoes †	95	Get things ready †	100
5. Get things ready †	91	Keep place neat †	100
6. Put away books †	90	Put away books †	97
7. Hang up clothes †	90	Put up soiled clothes †	97
8. Get clothes ready †	88	Hang up clothes †	97
9. Put up soiled clothes †	83	Hang up towel †	97
10. Keep the place neat †	83	Polish shoes †	97
11. Straighten drawers †	83	Straighten drawers †	97
12. Polish shoes †	76	Put away garment †	94
13. Make up bed †	73	Make up bed †	94
14. Clean the comb †	68	Care for wash cloth	91
15. Straighten room †	61	Wash socks	89
16.		Clean comb †	88
17.		Straighten room †	88
18.		Wash bathtub	83
19.		Wash clothes	83
20.		Iron clothes	83
21.		Sew on buttons	74
22.		Mend socks	71
23.		Clean out spots	69
24.		Sew up tear	66
25.			
B. HOUSEKEEPING			
1. Straighten desk †	96	Put away dishes †	97
2. Clean what she spills †	90	Set the table †	92
3. Set table †	88	Dry dishes †	94
4. Dry dishes †	85	Clear table †	94
5. Put away dishes †	80	Clean what she spills †	89
6. Wash dishes †	83	Dust furniture †	89
7. Sweep porch †	80	Straighten desk †	89
8. Sweep walk †	83	Sweep the porch †	86
9. Dust furniture †	76	Empty wastebasket †	83

TABLE 1 (cont'd)

<i>Nine Years</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Twelve Years</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
B. HOUSEKEEPING (cont'd)			
10. Wait on table †	71	Tidy living room	83
11. Empty wastebasket †	68	Sweep the room †	83
12. Clean the table †	68	Wait on table †	80
13. Sweep the room †	68	Clean wash basin	83
14.		Wash the dishes †	77
15.		Clean basket	77
16.		Mop floor (dust)	69
17.		Sweep walk †	69
18.		Dust woodwork	69
19.		Wash the porch	69
20.		Wash floor	66
21.		Wash windows	63
22.		Clean dish closet	60

C. MEAL PREPARATION

1. Go for groceries †	85	Go for groceries †	100
2. Make a sandwich †	83	Make lemonade †	94
3. Wash vegetables †	78	Make cocoa †	94
4. Make toast †	76	Make a sandwich †	91
5. Make lemonade †	71	Help get a meal	91
6. Put away groceries †	68	Make toast †	91
7. Make cocoa †	61	Make candy	88
8.		Wash vegetables †	86
9.		Fry potatoes	83
10.		Cook eggs	80
11.		Put away groceries †	77
12.		Cook bacon	77
13.		Toast marshmallows †	74
14.		Peel potatoes	71
15.		Bake cookies	71
16.		Get her own lunch	71
17.		Get a meal for family	66
18.		Bake apples	66
19.		Bake hotcakes	63
20.		Make popcorn balls	63
21.		Bake gingerbread	60
22.		Roast nuts	60
23.		Get her own supper	60

Source: Adapted from Editha Luecke, *Factors Related to Children's Participation in Certain Types of Home Activity*, Contributions to Education No. 839 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), pp. 47-49. Reprinted by permission.

† The item is common to all ages.

Although none of the activities for any of the age groups of either sex is significantly different in the matter of performance, preference, or dislike from the average for total population, some differences are indicated for particular age groups.

Girls engage in most of the activities concerned with the simple care of their personal belongings, their room, and their clothes at nine years. At ten and eleven they take some responsibility for special care of their clothes, such as washing and ironing; and at twelve they mend.

At nine and ten years girls engage in simple routine housekeeping activities.

At eleven and twelve they include occasional cleaning, which requires more skill, judgment, and persistence.

At nine years girls prepare sandwiches and drinks. At ten and eleven years, they cook bacon and eggs and help with meals. At twelve they engage in the preparation of all the foods mentioned and prepare meals for the family.

At each of the four age levels boys engage in most of the activities concerned with the simple care of their belongings, their clothes, and their rooms. They do not engage, to any considerable extent, in washing, ironing, and mending.

At nine boys engage in a few simple routine activities, sweeping, drying dishes, and taking out garbage and waste paper. At ten, eleven, and twelve they straighten their rooms and dressers, and wait on table. They do not engage appreciably in cleaning which requires much skill, judgment, and persistence.

At nine boys as well as girls prepare sandwiches, go for groceries, and wash vegetables or fruit. At ten and thereafter, they cook bacon and eggs and help with a meal, but they do not engage to any considerable extent in the preparation of other foods or of meals for themselves or for the family.*

The facts which have been presented briefly give a generalized picture of the school-age child's participation in the activities of family living. Obviously such participation varies from home to home, but for all children there are opportunities to learn worth-while skills, especially if parents are aware of their own opportunities and responsibilities. The resulting contributions to children's education can be many and valuable.

*Editha Luecke, *Factors Related to Children's Participation in Certain Types of Home Activity*, Contributions to Education No. 839 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), pp. 63-64, 66. Reprinted by permission.

The Broader Environment

It would be difficult to make a complete inventory of the elements of the broader environment affecting children between the ages of six and twelve. Anyone who desires to do so can make a partial inventory by noting the school-age children whom he sees in the course of a few days or a week. One or two school-age children, either on their own or in the company of their parents or some other older person, are to be found in almost any situation; hence it is logical to conclude that at least all the commoner experiences in the wider environment of the community are available to them.

In addition to children's general accessibility to these common elements in community life, there are special phases of the larger environment that ought not to be overlooked. Children in this age group are now mature enough so that there are many activities in which they can join their parents—going on picnics, going on hikes or bicycle rides, going fishing, riding in automobiles, and making visits to friends and relatives in neighboring towns.⁷ Travel, whether by bus, automobile, train, plane, or boat, personalizes places and events for children. Furthermore, the migration of people has given many adults as well as their children new horizons, intellectual and geographical, which are likely to expand rather than shrink. Travel enriches the child's environment in many ways. Encountering new and unknown persons at almost every turn, he becomes aware of the fact that people are different and that they engage in varied occupations. Then, too, the child gradually gains skill and confidence in meeting strangers and in talking to strangers about himself. Traveling means eating meals in hotels, restaurants, trains, and planes, and the child has the chance to acquire the etiquette of eating in public places.⁸

The school-age child's broader environment also includes visits to the theater, the circus, and other public gatherings where learning appropriate conduct in large audiences is part of the total experience. Some parents, wishing to supplement this type of learning, enroll their children in private dancing classes or arrange for private music lessons.

Special mention should also be made of the whole field of science and nature. Children in this age group are very curious about all natural phenomena and have hundreds of questions to ask about sun, moon, stars, wind, rain, snow, animals, plants, metals, chemical changes, and

⁷ Harold H. Anderson, *Children in the Family* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1937), Chap. 1.

⁸ Frances B. Strain, *Your Child, His Family and Friends* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943), Chap. 10.

the composition of the earth. Even though some of the questions, such as why a dog is a dog, may seem absurd to the adult, the questions are asked in all sincerity and reflect the type and amount of thinking the child is doing about the natural environment and his earnest desire to achieve an understanding of nature. By the time children reach the age of twelve they have usually become quite well informed about the commoner features of their everyday natural environment.

The Church and Religious Education

In the United States there are approximately 284,592 churches and 181,123 ministers of all denominations. There are at least 250,877 Sunday or Sabbath schools in all religious bodies, with 3,000,000 teachers and officers, and a total enrollment of 30,685,149 persons. In 1951 there were 11,358 denominational church-supported elementary schools with an enrollment of about 3,000,000 children.* Innumerable colleges, universities, and secondary schools offer courses in religion. These agencies, together with the homes, are the chief sources of religious instruction of our children and youth. Just how extensive and effective home training in religion is today is not known. According to Ilse Forest,

The religious attitudes, beliefs, and practices of parents influence children powerfully. In families in which religious affiliation is with a dogmatic or orthodox group, the religious ideas of the group are instilled in children from babyhood. Case histories and, indeed, ordinary observation show that the effect of this early indoctrination upon character is very deep. When such training is given as a part of a wholesome family experience, when parents exemplify in their own lives the highest principles which their children are being taught, when care is taken to build faith and confidence rather than fear and anxiety in connection with religious belief, the effect upon the total personality is in the direction of giving meaning and purpose to life and stability in character and outlook. When feelings of guilt and terror of supernatural retribution are the outcomes, as is sometimes the case, integrity of personality may be threatened.

There is a fairly large segment of the population, drawn both from members of orthodox groups and religious liberals, in which parents want their children to have religious education and yet do not themselves practice their nominal religion. The children are sent to Sunday school or other religious instruction, where frequently they are exhorted to *bring their parents* to church services. It is difficult to see how this procedure

* *Yearbook of American Churches*, Twenty-first Annual Issue (1952 ed.; New York: Central Department of Publication and Distribution, National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U.S.A., 1953).

can create anything but uncertainty and confusion in the minds of children about the meaning of religion, an uncertainty and a confusion which easily spread to other areas of parent-child relationship.

Still another typical attitude, affecting a substantial segment of the total population, is represented by those families in which all religious training is held to be an anathema. Some of these people think sincerely that religious education results in nothing besides fear, superstition, and guilt feelings. Others among them believe, with equal sincerity, that children should be left free from indoctrination and encouraged to formulate their own religious beliefs as adolescents or young adults.

Perhaps smaller than it appears, since, among the children attending liberal Sunday schools, there are many whose parents do not feel obliged themselves to attend church services, is the group in which adults attend religious services and children receive systematic religious instruction, but of a liberal sort with a minimum emphasis upon the supernatural. Most people in this group have read and thought a good deal, attended discussions and forums, and tried earnestly to develop a religious belief consistent with present-day scientific emphasis. A study of the attitudes of children reared with this religious background would probably show a lower incidence of religious prejudice among them than among certain other groups, and perhaps, a lack of clarity as to what major creed, if any, resembles the teaching which they have received.¹⁰

By way of summary, (1) the majority of children are receiving very little if any systematic religious instruction in the home; (2) many families are concerned about their children's religious training but delegate that responsibility to the church and Sunday school; (3) some families prefer to leave religious training to the time when the child makes his own choices; (4) probably an increasing number of families are engaged in some form of systematic religious education stemming from their affiliation with some church; and (5) religious education continues to be an important part of the child's education.

After reviewing and interpreting many research studies, Hurlock gave a description of the stages of religious development in children. The brief account that follows is summarized from Hurlock's work.¹¹ Like other phases of development, interest in religion follows a pattern that is more or less the same for all children. The preschool child is curious about the universe as well as about the everyday things in his immediate environment. Between the ages of three and four many of the child's questions relate to religion. Mysteries centered around birth,

¹⁰ By permission from *Child Development*, by Ilse Forest. Copyright, 1954. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., pp. 167-168.

¹¹ Elizabeth Hurlock, *Child Development* (2d ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950), pp. 473-483.

death, and the physical elements in the environment are explained to the child in religious terms, and these answers satisfy him temporarily because at this age he accepts almost any answers given to him. The religion of the young child is realistic in that he thinks of God, angels, the devil, heaven, and hell in terms of the pictures he has seen of them. The child interprets religion as *animate* because he tends to regard everything in his environment as animate. God, to him, is a man, and he endows the sun, moon, stars, and the elements with the same qualities of life that human beings have. By the age of six or seven, he reserves his animistic beliefs for objects that move. The young child is *reverent* in his attitude toward religion. For him, religion is *egocentric* and self-seeking in that prayers and worship mean the attainment of some desire. *Religion at this age is formal.*

During most of the elementary school age period the religious attitude of the child is in many respects similar to that of the younger child. Some children during this age period become confused about the denominational differences, and many children become critical of the religious concepts they learned earlier. Religious services in Sunday school or church may appeal because of their colorful pageantry, the singing, and the ritual. Religion is still basically egocentric. Prayer is regarded primarily as a means to an end. Little sentiment or emotionality accompanies religious practices because religion is largely an impersonal experience. Bible stories have marked appeal.

At the beginning of adolescence there is generally a carry-over of the religious attitudes that characterized late childhood. Adolescents usually continue to carry out religious activities learned in childhood, such as prayers and church attendance, at the same time discarding many beliefs also acquired in childhood. A large proportion of adolescents participate in the activities of religious organizations. But in the course of adolescence, religious attitudes change. Hurlock characterized the adolescent's changing attitudes toward religion as follows: (1) there is a decline in Sunday school attendance beginning at the age of fourteen or fifteen; (2) there is a decline in interest in church and religious activities; (3) there is a change in religious attitude, which may take the form of heightened interest or of a skeptical, critical interest; and (4) there is a change in religious concepts. The three outstanding elements of religious awakening among adolescents were found to be (1) insight, involving a rational comprehension of the importance of religion; (2) moral development, involving perception of right and wrong; and (3) emotional response. The intellectual element dominates in religious experiences of late adolescence just as the emotional element dominated in early adolescence. It is common for an adolescent to experience a period of agnosticism, in which he has no religious faith,

during the interval between the awakening of religious doubt and the readjustment to a religion that is satisfactory to him.

The Motion Picture

In discussing children's use of leisure time, Brown classified youth-serving agencies into two categories, the noncommercial and the commercial.¹² In the first group he listed children's libraries, museums, playgrounds and recreation centers, settlement houses, and youth organizations. In the commercial category he mentioned such agencies as motion pictures, radios, camps, and children's theaters. In making a list today, he would no doubt classify comic books and TV also as commercial agencies that are practically universal and that have had a lasting influence upon the lives of the children. The first to be treated is the motion picture.

The first showing of what we now know as the motion picture took place in 1906. Since then, the motion-picture industry has developed so rapidly that every town, city, and highway has one or more motion-picture theaters. In less than fifty years we have come from the flickers to sound, colored, and even three-dimensional films, and just recently to Cyclorama, Cinemascope, and Cinerama. Attendance at movies by young and old alike has increased to an estimated weekly attendance of fifty million. In 1953 it was estimated that ten million children went to the movies every Saturday afternoon!¹³

A recent study, which did not include TV, revealed that, next to play with other children, the most popular recreation of the eleven-year-olds was attending the motion-picture theater. Some children went as often as three or four times a week, but the average for the group was somewhat over one movie a week.¹⁴ One author, whose extensive studies of children's interests included movies and TV, concluded that, even though movie attendance has dropped noticeably since television became available, motion pictures still have a strong appeal for boys and girls.¹⁵

The most extensive body of data validating the view that films have specific effects on attitudes and behavior is that obtained in a series of studies conducted by a number of sociologists and psychologists under the sponsorship of the Motion Picture Research Council

¹² Francis J. Brown, *The Sociology of Childhood* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939), Chaps. 16-20.

¹³ Paul Witty and Harry Bricker, *Your Child and Radio, TV, Comics, Movies* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1953), p. 4.

¹⁴ Volberding, *op. cit.*, 437-438.

¹⁵ Paul Witty, "Children's Interest in Comics, Radio, Motion Pictures, and TV," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 38 (March, 1952), 138-147.

and financed by the Payne Fund.¹⁶ The results of these studies, known as the Payne Fund Studies, were published in a series of monographs in 1933. The general conclusion of these studies was that motion pictures have definite and measurable effects on attitudes and behavior, particularly in the case of children and adolescents, and that these effects are on the whole bad. For example, when attitudes toward war, toward Negroes, and toward Orientals were measured before and after a series of films dealing with these subjects were shown, the results indicated that in the case of the children tested there were measurable changes in their attitudes in the direction indicated by the film. In the case of one group, these effects persisted in a significant amount for a period of five months.

A more recent but less comprehensive study of the effects on children of a single motion picture, in which a somewhat different method was utilized, is that by Wiese and Cole.¹⁷ Instead of attitude scales, this study made use of the free-association technique, in which approximately three thousand children wrote answers to questions regarding the ideological points in the film before and after being exposed to it. The results of this investigation are in agreement with those of the Payne Studies.

As might be expected, motion pictures provide a high degree of emotional stimulation for children.¹⁸ Scenes of danger, conflict, and tragedy produce the greatest effect upon those from six to twelve years of age. The love themes, including romantic and erotic scenes, produce the highest emotional stimulation among those from twelve to eighteen years of age. The degree of fright among all children is quite large.

In the absence of recent research on the effect of radio, movies, and comics on children's fears, a group of psychiatrists and psychologists were asked to give their opinion.¹⁹ All agreed on one point: they do not in themselves create fears, but for certain children and under certain conditions, they do stimulate anxieties lying beneath the surface ready to be awakened. Media vary too, the specialists thought, with the movies very likely having the greatest and most lasting impact.

Because of the high emotional pitch produced in children by the exciting dramas in motion pictures and because most children attend

¹⁶ Franklin Fearing, "Influence of the Movies on Attitudes and Behavior," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 254 (November, 1947), 70-79.

¹⁷ Mildred J. Wiese and Stewart G. Cole, "A Study of Children's Attitudes and the Influence of a Commercial Picture," *Journal of Psychology*, 21 (1946), 151-171.

¹⁸ Summaries of the Payne Fund Studies: Henry J. Forman, *Our Movie-made Children* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1935); W. W. Charters, *Motion Pictures and Youth* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1935).

¹⁹ "Chills and Thrills in Radio, Movies, and Comics," *Child Study*, 25 (Spring, 1948), 42-45.

the theater at night, it is not surprising that the researches produced considerable evidence showing the unwholesome effect of pictures upon children's sleep. The facts from the Payne Fund Studies indicate that parents who allow their children to go to the theater should do so with the knowledge that the experience is about as disturbing to sleep patterns as sitting up till midnight or as drinking two cups of coffee or some other beverage that is highly stimulating. The subsequent detrimental effect upon children's health is self-evident.

One implication from the result of all research and expert opinion is that children's viewing of movies should be confined to pictures that are suitable. Some people are disturbed over the deplorable movie entertainment that children are seeing on television and in theaters.²⁰ It is feared that the acute shortage of appropriate films will persist because films for children are not profitable. The Children's Film Library of the Motion Picture Association maintains a limited collection of suitable entertainment films that theater managers may obtain at low rental. However, C.F.L. takes the position that, in general, it is better for older children to see adult films of "family" variety rather than films made only for children and that youngsters under eight should not go to the movies either alone or with parents, but that special entertainment films be produced for the three- to eight-year-olds. A few good ones are available in this country.²¹

In summary, one should be aware that children undoubtedly learn many wholesome and useful as well as many unwholesome things from motion pictures; that the motion picture is an unusually potent educational tool; that schools could well afford to make more use of good educational films; and that the motion-picture theater is a major factor in the educative environment of the school-age child.

The Radio

Although radio and television are articles of household equipment and might have been discussed under that heading, they have been reserved for special treatment because of their powerful and unique influence on growing children. Marconi transmitted the first electrical signals in 1895. In 1920 station WWJ of Detroit broadcasted the first daily programs, and in November of that year KDKA of Pittsburgh made the first significant broadcast, the returns of the Harding-Cox presidential election. The first sponsored programs were put on the air in 1923. By August, 1953, more than 2,451 AM (amplitude modulation) stations were in operation and radio receiving sets numbering

²⁰ "Your Children's Movies," *Saturday Review*, 38 (November 13, 1954), 28.

²¹ *Ibid.*

more than 114,000,000 were to be found in more than 95 per cent of the homes. According to the radio research findings reported in the 1950 yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio, people in small-town and rural homes listened to radio about 9 per cent more than people in metropolitan areas; lower-income groups about 13 per cent more than upper-income groups; large families (five members and over) about 33 per cent more than small families (one and two members); people with only a grammar or high school education listened 20 per cent more than those in homes in which one or more members had a college education.²²

Prior to the introduction of television, elementary school children listened to radio programs during out-of-school hours from 14 to 21 hours per week. In 1952 televieing tended to replace radio listening. Children watched TV 3.3 hours daily, or approximately 23 hours a week, while their radio listening was reduced to 1.76 hours daily, or approximately 12 hours per week. Young children showed a stronger preference for TV than for radio. Over 90 per cent of first- and second-grade children stated that they preferred TV to the radio, compared with 50 per cent of the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils.²³

Factors that seem to affect the amount of radio listening done by children are (1) the amount of listening done by the adults in the home, (2) the number of radios in the home, (3) the children's opportunities for other worth-while activities, and (4) parental attitudes toward children's listening.

Some listening to radio programs is done by preschool children, but active and regular listening usually begins during the age period from seven to nine. The types of programs preferred by elementary school children are reflected in the data reported by Levenson.²⁴ From the studies reviewed he concluded that children preferred funny and exciting programs whether they were written for children or adults; that children showed a definite preference for cowboy, old-time, band, fast, and national folk music to classical, vocal, slow, and romantic music; and that mystery and horror stories were conspicuously absent among the programs consistently popular with children of all ages. It was also noted that all children preferred child adventure series. Although some of these series dealt with the detection of crime and apprehension of criminals, the qualities common to all these programs were action and suspense. The presence of child characters in the story also appealed to many of the children.

²² Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1950, pp. 390-391.

²³ Witte, *op. cit.*, 118-119.

²⁴ William B. Levenson and Edward Stasheff, *Teaching through Radio and Television* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1952), pp. 423-426.

Some years ago the Columbia Broadcasting System introduced its Saturday morning half-hour of "Let's Pretend" in which folk and fairy tales are dramatized by talented youngsters, professionally trained. Throughout the years this program has remained a classic favorite with many children—and their parents, too. Another excellent program is "Carnival of Books."

Since the "thriller" types of program are preferred by many in this age group, the radio listening of children has much the same effect upon them as motion pictures have. The overdramatic, the fantastic, the high suspense, the daring, the fighting, the tragedy, and the high emotional content of the programs leave their impact, particularly upon children who listen in the evening before bedtime—and most of children's listening is done after school and during evening hours.

As with the motion pictures, the educational effect of the radio is both good and bad. No doubt children's lives are enriched in many ways by their radio listening, but the nature and content of present radio programs to which they listen leave much to be desired.

Television

In May of 1928, WGY, General Electric Radio in Schenectady, New York, became the pioneer United States television station with a regular schedule—three afternoons a week. Three months later WGY televised the governor of New York, Alfred E. Smith, making his acceptance speech at the inaugural ceremony in Albany, the first remote pickup.²⁵ By August, 1952, 130 television stations were operating or had construction permits, and more than 16 million sets had been installed in the homes of the United States.²⁶ Two years later 224 TV stations were on the air and 284 permits had been issued. Some 25 million sets were within reach of more than 80 million persons.²⁷

As soon as television became relatively inexpensive, educationists, psychologists, sociologists, and parents became very much concerned about the effect on the lives of the American people, particularly on the children. It was not until 1948, however, that any serious studies were undertaken and not until after 1950 that a sufficient number had been made under sufficiently controlled conditions for any tentative conclusions to be drawn.

Over a period of four years extensive investigations of children's

²⁵ Standley Kempner, *Television Encyclopedia* (New York: Fairchild Publications, Inc., 1948), p. 21.

²⁶ *Information Please, Almanac* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1952), pp. 178-179.

²⁷ *Children and TV*, Bulletin No. 93 (Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1954), p. 6.

interest in television were made in one city. In April and May of 1950 statements were obtained from 2,100 elementary pupils. At that time, 43 per cent of the pupils had TV sets in their homes. For pupils who had TV sets, the average time given to televiewing was 21 hours per week. Pupils without TV sets devoted an average of 10.5 hours per week. Almost all said that they spent less time listening to radio and that they went to the movies less often since they began viewing television. A repetition of the inquiry in April and May of 1951, when 68 per cent of the homes owned TV sets, revealed that the children spent slightly less time, 19 hours per week, before the screen. When the third study was made in 1952, 88 per cent of the homes represented had TV sets, and the average amount of viewing time had advanced more than three hours. In May, 1953, the per cent of pupils having sets at home was 92, and the amount of viewing time was 23 hours per week.²⁸ Apparently the supposition that "the new would wear off" did not hold.

Other studies have shown slightly more or less amounts of time spent by children before television sets. One investigator, taking a pessimistic view of the situation, said, "The average ten- and twelve-year-old spends 3.7 hours every school day before the screen. Over a week he is apt to spend 30 hours—5 more than he spends in school."²⁹ In all but one of the surveys so far made it has been found that children's viewing decreases as they grow older. In Chicago, to cite a typical study, it was found that nine-year-olds were watching for 23.5 hours a week but eighteen-year-olds for only 13.75 hours.³⁰ There seems to be no doubt that at present TV is the leisure activity that has the strongest appeal for boys and girls—a time-consuming interest unsurpassed by any other.³¹

Recognizing that television is a vital part of the child's environment, we need to know what kinds of programs are absorbing so much of the time of adults and children. One of the most widely quoted surveys required research workers to observe and record TV programs presented in New York City's seven stations during one week in Janu-

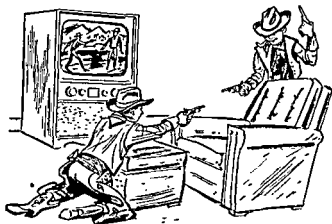
²⁸ Paul Witry, "Interest in TV and Success in School," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 37 (April, 1951), 193-210; Witry, "Two Studies of Children's Interest in TV," *Elementary English*, 29 (May, 1952), 251-257; Witry, "Children's Reactions to TV—A Third Report," *Elementary English*, 29 (December, 1952), 469-473; Witry, "TV—A Fourth Report," *Elementary English*, 30 (November, 1953), 444-449.

²⁹ *Time*, 59 (January 7, 1952), 61. Also reported in Paul Witry, "Television and Our Children's Future," *National Parent-Teacher*, 47 (December, 1952), 4-6. Reprinted by permission.

³⁰ *New York Times*, Educational Supplement, February 17, 1953, p. 183.

³¹ Paul Witry, "Children's Interest in Comics, Radio, Motion Pictures, and TV," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 38 (March, 1952), 144.

ary, 1951. Of the 564 hours the TV stations were on the air, about one-half of the time was spent on drama (crime, westerns, romance, and comedy), sports, variety, and vaudeville shows. Not counting news and homemaking programs, only 3 per cent of the time was used for



"You be Roy Rogers, and I'll be Gene Autry..."

informational programs and 3 per cent for discussions and religious programs. Commercial advertising took up 10 per cent of the time. Children's programs filled 70 hours, about 12 per cent of the total time; however, only three hours of the 70 could be labeled "informational and instructive."³²

A year later a second check showed no major changes. In Los Angeles, where a third study was made, the results were not significantly different from those of the New York surveys. The most important generalization that can be made from these detailed investigations is that the time given to programs that, even broadly interpreted, could be called educational is relatively small and is not increasing.³³

Since 1950 the programs liked best by children have changed in type and in quality. In 1950 cowboy programs, such as "Hopalong Cassidy," were popular. Puppet shows were also very popular. For example, "Howdy Doody" at first attracted a large and appreciative audience. Milton Berle was also a great favorite in 1950. In 1952, elementary school children gave "I Love Lucy" first place; "Roy Rogers"

³² Paul Witte and Harry Bricker, *Your Child and Radio, TV, Comics, and Movies* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1952), p. 14.

³³ *New York Times*, Educational Supplement, February 17, 1953, p. 183.

and "My Friend Irma" were also rated high, and such new favorites as "Red Buttons" and "Dragnet" were near the top of the list in 1953. Programs highly disfavored at that time were "Howdy Doody," Milton Berle, news programs, and wrestling.³³ The older children suggested that there be more musical programs and more new movies. The younger children wanted more programs devoted to comedy, cartoons, and science. They also asked for a wide variety of educational programs including dramatization of favorite books, more children's plays, and a larger number of programs dealing with hobbies and crafts.

Concerning the effect that seeing television has on the child, we have much opinion but little conclusive evidence. There seem to be no significant differences between the school achievement of those who have sets in their homes and those who do not. Nor do children whose viewing is controlled by their parents—as to both time and type of program—do any better scholastically than children who are left entirely free to watch when and what they wish. However, the investigators noted that excessive viewing, low IQ, poor work in school, and little parental control were apt to be found in the same child.³⁴ Seventy per cent of the children in Witty's studies stated that TV did not help them in their school work, while 30 per cent thought that it did.

What do parents and teachers think about children and TV? They have mixed feelings and attitudes. At first many in both groups protested that children read less, played less outside; that programs were too violent, sensational, and stimulating. Teachers spoke of the low standard of educational offerings and the poor quality of entertainment on television, and the increased nervousness, drowsiness, and lack of interest of children during school hours. Parents reported difficulty getting their children to leave their viewing for meals and sleep.³⁵ Parents and teachers today, though recognizing the limitations of television, realize that it is here to stay and even acknowledge its promise as a medium of communication. Their responsibilities and opportunities are

- (a) To develop critical evaluation, appreciation of good programs, and the rudiments of "good taste,"
- (b) To spearhead or give impetus to widespread demand for better programs and for the support of excellent programs already on the air,

- (c) To promote and make assigned use of satisfactory programs with educational value,
- (d) To participate or aid in production of programs under skillful leadership, using the resources of a school system or an educational institution.³⁷

Television, like every important invention first introduced into our daily life, is still a controversial topic. Its advocates and opponents, however, are in agreement on one point: the effect on growing boys and girls is powerful.³⁸

Several efforts have been made to determine the combined effects of mass media of communication on children. The results were practically the same as those found when each was investigated separately.³⁹ To take one example, Heisler's study included movies, radio, and comics. She gave achievement tests to six hundred children in two equated groups—one subjected to these mass media, the other seldom or not at all—and reported no significant differences. Some people have suspected that these activities were harmful, while others wondered if they might be beneficial. The results gave encouragement to neither group. Some people have thought that movies, comics, and radio helped to develop skills that would tend to make for greater success in school work. This study furnished no conclusive evidence on this relation. It is likely that the typical achievement test, however, does not test the information acquired through seeing movies, listening to the radio, and reading the comics.

Psychologists suspect that the total impact of mass media (movies, comics, radio, and television) is even greater than the impact of each medium separately. The fact that these media absorb so large a portion of children's leisure time is deplored because it means that more and more of children's time is devoted to a passive form of leisure and less and less time is devoted to active forms. "Whether eventually this will have an effect upon basic personality structure of American children remains to be seen."⁴⁰

³⁷ Madeline S. Long, "Television Has a Part in Modern Education," *Educational Leadership*, 9 (April, 1952), 413. Reprinted by permission.

³⁸ Robert Lewis Shayon, *Television and Our Children* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1951).

³⁹ Florence Heisler, "A Comparison between Those Elementary School Children Who Attend Moving Pictures, Read Comics, and Listen to Serial Radio Programs to an Excess, with Those Who Indulge in These Activities Seldom or Not at All," *Journal of Educational Research*, 42 (November, 1948), 182-190; Josette Frank, *Comics, Radio, Movies—and Children*, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 148 (New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc.); Paul Witty, "Children's Interest in Comics, Radio, Motion-Pictures, and TV," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 38 (March, 1952), 138-147.

⁴⁰ William E. Martin and Celia Burns Stendler, *Child Development* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953), p. 500. Reprinted by permission.

Newspapers, Magazines, and Books

Newspapers, magazines, and books play an important role in the elementary child's home environment; like radio and television, they warrant separate treatment.

If children's initial contacts with books are pleasant, books may become constant lifelong companions. Most parents spend some time reading stories to their preschool children.⁴¹ Before children have learned to read, they enjoy looking at the pictures in books and talking about them. After they have learned to read, children will read many books during out-of-school hours if books are readily available and if some encouragement to reading is given. During recent years the supply of books especially written for children has increased so greatly that now one can state accurately that there is a body of children's literature. By the time children reach the third or fourth grade, teachers and parents should help them to familiarize themselves with the school and public library so that they may become regular borrowers for home reading. Many public libraries have special children's rooms, special collections of books for children, specially trained children's librarians, and special afterschool and vacation story hours and reading programs.

Newspapers, daily or weekly, are not read a great deal by children below junior high school age, except for the comic strips and the Sunday "funny paper." The comics in the daily papers have universal appeal for all children, boys and girls, urban and rural, at all ages, beginning at about six. Children may enjoy the comic strips because they are *funny, dramatic, sensational, or exciting*. Children's reasons for liking the comic strips are about the same as their reasons for liking motion pictures, and radio and television dramas.

Although children read very little besides the comic strips in the daily papers, they are at least aware of other portions of the paper. Frequently the headlines are read or the paper is used to find out what shows are at local theaters or what bargains are offered in the local stores. No doubt children's inattention to other parts of the newspaper is due to the difficulty of the content and to the fact that schools make little effort to use the daily newspapers as part of their teaching of current events. Most newspaper content is probably too difficult for children below the fifth or the sixth grade.

Boys and girls at all grade levels are avid readers of the comic

⁴¹ A suggested guide for parents is *Children's Bookshelf: A Booklist for Parents*, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Publication 304 (Washington U S Government Printing Office, 1953).

books. In 1951 nine hundred million comic magazines bearing four hundred different titles were sold every year. While juveniles were not the only readers of comics, over 90 per cent of the boys and girls between eight and thirteen years of age regularly read comic strips and



"Did you say dinner is ready?"

comic books. Fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-graders read as many as five or six comics weekly and they read more from time to time. Although interest declined in senior high school, studies showed that more than one-fourth of the magazines read by high school students were comics and that as many as half of the adults in some communities read comic books regularly.⁴²

Perhaps the most extensive and startling of the researches deals with the comics and their influence on the minds and behavior of children.⁴³ Dr. Wertham has concentrated his seven-year study specifically on crime comic books, which he defines as those "comic books that depict crime, whether the setting is urban, western, science-fiction, jungle, adventure or the realm of superman, 'horror' or supernatural beings."⁴⁴ Prior to 1947 there were only 19 crime comic titles, but during 1948 alone 107 new titles of crime books appeared, and by 1954 crime books formed the vast majority of the comic books.⁴⁵

From 250,000 to 500,000 or more copies of a crime comic book are printed, and most copies are read by several children, and exchanged

⁴² Witty and Bricker, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

⁴³ Frederic Wertham, *Seduction of the Innocent* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1954).

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. vi.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 29.

or sold—facts that make it impossible to arrive at accurate figures for number of readers. In one of his surveys, made on 450 pupils in grades four to six, it was found that the average child read 14.5 comic books a week. Two children claimed that they read a hundred a week. Crime comic books tend to have larger and more frequent editions than harmless ones and are the ones most widely traded.⁴⁶

Summarizing the effects of comic books on children, Dr. Wertham writes as follows:

The general lesson we have deduced from our large case material is that the bad effects of crime comic books exist potentially for all children and may be exerted along these lines:

1. The comic-book format is an invitation to illiteracy.
2. Crime comic books create an atmosphere of cruelty and deceit.
3. They create a readiness for temptation.
4. They stimulate unwholesome fantasies.
5. They suggest criminal or sexually abnormal ideas.
6. They furnish the rationalization for them, which may be ethically even more harmful than the impulse.
7. They suggest the forms a delinquent impulse may take and supply details of technique.
8. They may tip the scales toward maladjustment or delinquency.

Crime comics are an agent with harmful potentialities. They bring about a mass conditioning of children, with different effects in the individual case. A child is not a simple unit which exists outside of its living social ties. Comic books themselves may be the virus, or the cause of a lack of resistance to the social virus of a harmful environment.⁴⁷

Parents and teachers, as well as the public in general, are concerned about the harmful influence of the majority of comic books on most children. In some instances steps are being taken to improve the situation by means of censorship and legislation. Efforts to substitute such harmless comics as *True Comics* and *Real Heroes*, while helpful, have not always produced the desired results. The solution to the problem is complicated and no doubt, in part, related to other reading interests.

As children advance in age and schooling, there seems to be a shift in their reading interests, even though their interest in comic books continues. Recent studies have shown that children in the intermediate and upper grades enjoy such magazines as *Child Life*, *Children's Activities*, *High Lights*, *Junior Activities*, *Children's Digest*, *American Boy*, *Boy's Life*, *Popular Mechanics*, *Popular Science*, *American Girl*, *Young America*, *Life*, and *The Saturday Evening Post*, as well as the great number of suitable and appealing books that are now available.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

⁴⁷ Frederic Wertham, *Seduction of the Innocent* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1954), p. 169. Reprinted by permission.

Camps

In 1940 there were over six thousand camps in the United States serving an estimated two million boys and girls. In addition to the privately owned camps, there were in 1947 more than thirty distinct types of organized camps under the direction of agencies such as the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., churches, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, 4-H Clubs, newspapers, and magazines. Camps have also been established by various civic organizations and, more recently, by the schools.⁴⁸ There are special camps for delinquent, undernourished, crippled, blind, deaf, cardiac, and diabetic children, and, in increasing numbers camps are becoming available to the "average child" wherever he may live.⁴⁹

The educational values of camping experience are well known to persons who themselves had camping experience during childhood or youth or who, as parents, have seen their own children benefit from camping. Unfortunately this insight into the educational values of camping is not as widespread as it should be among educators or the general public. It is estimated that only 5 per cent of children receive the benefits of camp life. The present trend is for leaders in the camping movement to shift away from an exercise and recreation program to an educational view of camp life and for educational leaders to recognize new potentialities in camping experiences for children.

Camping has many values for children. It gets the child into an entirely new environment, away from home, with new associates and under new conditions wherein self-help, individual responsibility, and cooperative activity appear in new light and with new opportunity. It is thus not surprising to find that camp life seems to be very potent in helping maladjusted children and in bringing new responsibilities to those who have capacity for leadership. Most camps give special attention to nature study, handicrafts, and water sports.⁵⁰

Youth Organizations and Recreation Programs

Most of the youth organizations that operate on a national scale have junior groups that admit children of elementary school age;

⁴⁸ *Education*, 73 (September, 1952); Helen Manley and M. F. Drury, *Education through School Camping* (St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Company, 1952); *School Camping* (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1953).

⁴⁹ Ernest Harms, "The Changing Pattern of the American Children's Camp," *School and Society*, 71 (February 18, 1950), 97-99.

⁵⁰ Henry J. Otto, "Postwar Educational Uses of Abandoned Army Camps," *Educational Outlook*, 19 (January, 1945), 69-79.

otherwise their regular minimum entrance age is low enough to permit elementary school pupils to join. The Cub Scout program enrolls boys from nine through eleven years of age; the Brownie division enrolls girls from seven through nine years; the Camp Fire organization enrolls girls seven through nine as Blue Birds and girls ten through fourteen as Camp Fire Girls; the 4-H Clubs admit both boys and girls at the age of ten.

Each of the youth agencies, whether national, regional, or local, is organized to provide children with wholesome and worth-while outlets for the use of out-of-school leisure time. Although each organization has its own statement of objectives and special activities that it emphasizes, the purposes and activities of each are in accord with what the typical parent desires for his children. Although considerably less than half of the children in the eligible age groups actually belong to these organizations, the work of these agencies is very beneficial for those children they reach. For them, youth organizations constitute an essential part of their total educative environment.

It is extremely gratifying to note the increase in the number of good recreation programs for children of all ages. These programs, which include a variety of activities, are sponsored entirely or in part by the local government, the churches, the schools, and by patriotic, welfare, business, and civic organizations. Where these activities are so carefully supervised that the physical and social well-being of all children are recognized at all times, the values are many.

Life at School

Those who have thought of education as synonymous with schooling may be surprised to find "life at school" listed as only one of thirteen important phases of a child's educative environment. By this time, however, it should be clear to the reader that formal schooling is but one of the agencies or channels that educate children. This fact can be illustrated further by a few figures. A year of 365 days contains 8,760 hours. If the child sleeps an average of 10 hours out of each day, he sleeps 3,650 hours a year or 41.6 per cent of the time. If the child is in school from 9:00 A.M. until 4:00 P.M., he will spend 1,260 hours in school during a nine months' school year of 180 days. The child thus spends 24.6 per cent of his waking time, or 14.3 per cent of his total time, in school each year. The school child's year includes 3,850 waking hours that he spends out of school.

To characterize the school program as one of many important agencies for the child's education does not in any sense minimize its

other children think of them, that is, with their status among their peers. Much of a child's behavior in school is the result of his effort to achieve or to maintain approval or acceptance by the members of his group. The nature and extent of these inter pupil relations thus constitute an important phase of a child's life at school.

Although it is likely that most school-age children are less concerned about having status with teachers than they are about having status with their own peers, children are nevertheless eager to stand in favor with their teachers. The very fact that the teacher is tall, grown-up, and an adult gives her prestige with her pupils. Children also recognize that the teacher is the chairman or leader or director of the class and therefore look to her for sympathetic and understanding guidance. This is likely to be more true in primary than in intermediate or upper grades. Incidentally, the prestige of the teacher is essential to effective teaching. What the teacher does, what she says, how she says it, and under what circumstances have profound influence upon children. It has sometimes been said that what kind of person the teacher is and how she deals with children are more important than what is taught. Whether or not this statement can be substantiated, the fact remains that the relation between teacher and pupils is an extremely important part of the child's school life.

The second phase of child life at school is composed of activities sponsored by the school. The word "curriculum" is commonly used to designate the array of activities sponsored, initiated, permitted, or encouraged by the school staff for the purpose of promoting children's education. In brief, the curriculum comprises all the activities in which the child engages and all the experiences he has while at school.

Activities are the things a child does or the ways in which he spends his time. Experiences comprise what happens to the child as a result of engaging in activities. The activity of riding a bicycle may result in discovering a new path in the woods, seeing a beautiful sunset, or added skill in riding the bicycle. Our experiences consist of what happens to us personally. The products of our experiences are all types of learnings and development. Activities are not automatic indexes of experience or learnings. These matters will be discussed more fully in subsequent chapters.

The activities comprising the curriculum may be classified roughly into three groups. Adult-interest activities are enterprises in which the major interest lies with adults in the community but the schools are invited or urged to participate because such participation is thought to have educational value for children. Essay and poster contests, community-chest drives, and assembling boxes of school supplies for needy children in other lands are examples.

Co-curricular activities are those school-sponsored child activities that require administrative provision and organizational involvements somewhat different from the more typical forms of classroom instruction.³¹ A few illustrations will help to clarify this definition. The program of a given elementary school may include two assembly programs each month. In order to have these programs, certain special arrangements must be made. The hour and day for each meeting must be set. If the meeting is to be during school time, all the pupils and teachers must be informed. The program for the assembly must be planned and prepared by pupils and teachers. Perhaps arrangements must be made for practice periods in the assembly hall. All these adjustments and arrangements involve administrative and organizational elements that are relatively nonexistent on days when there is no assembly program. Similarly, special administrative provisions are involved if the school is sponsoring special-interest clubs, a school band or orchestra or glee club, a student council, athletic events, trips and excursions, a school paper, safety patrols, or social activities. Co-curricular activities thus constitute another phase of the child's school life.

Activities associated with the fields of study constitute the third part of the curriculum. The fields of study have multiplied many times over since elementary schools were first established during the early Colonial period. The curriculum of the elementary school, as established by the Massachusetts law of 1647, included only reading and writing. This was not changed by law until 1789, when arithmetic, the English language, orthography, and decent behavior were added. *The New England Primer*, patterned after English models, was published in 1690. Although Edmund Coote (in 1596) had published spellers in England, orthography did not gain prominence in American schools until after Noah Webster's "blue-back speller," entitled *Elementary Spelling Book*, Part I of his *Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, was published in 1784. Arithmetic was common but not universal in Colonial curriculums. Arithmetic was generally neglected before 1800.

Geography was not common in American elementary schools before 1800. Bronson Alcott, writing in 1824, stated that up to that time geography as a science had received little attention in the public schools of New England. The first American geography was published by Jedidiah Morse in 1789. History was seldom studied in the first quarter of the nineteenth century; in fact, until late in the nineteenth century, the common practice was to teach history only in the last two grades of the elementary school. By 1860 history had secured a separate place

³¹ Henry J. Otto and Shirley A. Hamrin, *Co-Curricular Activities in Elementary Schools* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1937), p. 9.

in many elementary schools. William Payne, writing in 1905, noted that there was a clearly marked tendency either to make civics a separate subject or to add extra time to history and to teach it as a part of that subject.

Eight other subjects entered the elementary school curriculum during the last half of the nineteenth century. Elementary science and nature study, which began as an offshoot of Pestalozzian object lessons, were introduced into American elementary schools about 1870. Music and art, the latter largely in the form of industrial and mechanical drawing, began to appear in school curriculums about 1870. Literature, as a recognized area of experience for elementary school pupils, did not find a place in schools until about 1900. Payne (in 1905) characterized language or English (as distinct from grammar), drawing, elementary science and nature study, manual training, and civics as the newly introduced subjects that showed the direction in which the curriculum was growing. By 1905 a few of the larger cities had added manual training, cooking, and sewing. Payne pointed out (in 1905) that only in New York City did subjects other than the "three R's" receive much attention; reading, writing, spelling, grammar, language lessons, composition, arithmetic, geography, and history received barely 60 per cent of the allotted time.

Since 1900 nine additional fields or areas of emphasis have found their way into the elementary school program. Most of the progress that has been made in health instruction and physical education has come since 1900 and more particularly since 1915. Health education received its impetus from the W.C.T.U., which sought state legislation to require the teaching of the "effects of alcohol and tobacco." The first legislation for state-wide health and physical education was enacted in North Dakota in 1899; by 1934, thirty-four states had laws requiring physical education. Special emphasis on character education developed in the 1920's; in 1932 the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A. published its yearbook on *Character Education*. Attention to "conservation education" and safety education and practices developed during the 1930's. At present we are urged by national and state agencies to give more attention to inter-American relations, the United Nations and UNESCO, the Far East, and the Near East. Within recent years, the laws of several states have authorized the teaching of conversational Spanish in the elementary grades. The war and its aftermath of social unrest brought new meaning to citizenship education and emphasized again the importance of indoctrinating children in the fundamental principles and procedures of democracy and democratic ways of living and of working together.

This brief summary shows that prior to 1800 the elementary school curriculum consisted of reading and writing, with some schools also teaching arithmetic and language. Between 1800 and 1900, thirteen subjects found their way into the program: arithmetic, language, spelling, history, civics, geography, nature study or science, art, music, literature, cooking, sewing, and manual training. Added since 1900 are phonics, foreign language, social studies, physical education, health, safety, conservation, character education, and citizenship, thus giving a total of twenty-four subjects or "areas of special emphasis."³²

This large array of subjects and areas of special emphasis, plus the adult-interest and co-curricular activities, has produced a very overcrowded elementary school program. Many school systems have taken aggressive steps to reduce this overcrowding and to improve the unity and coherence of the curriculum. Further suggestions along this line are presented in subsequent chapters.

State Legislation Regarding Fields of Study

The legislatures of the several states have from time to time passed laws prescribing the subjects to be taught in elementary schools. Such action by legislatures is the logical expression of the generally accepted principle that in this country education is a state function.

A research study by Fletcher gives a comprehensive picture of the status of legislative prescriptions regarding the fields of study in the elementary school.³³ Fletcher arranged his analysis of curricular prescriptions into eight groups. The first of these pertains to the teaching of nationalism. Various practices directed toward an inculcation of national interest and devotion to country have been specified by legislatures. Days of special observance (other than school holidays) such as Washington's Birthday, Columbus Day, Armistice Day, and so on, display of the flag and flag exercises, a study of state and national government, and mandates to the effect that instruction must be given in the English language are typical of the means used to these goals. A summary of the legislative prescriptions in this group follows. After each item is given the number of states in which the prescription prevailed in 1943.

³² This historical sketch was summarized from Henry J. Otto, "The Overcrowded Elementary School Curriculum," *Texas Outlook*, 28 (May, 1944), 40.

³³ Raymond H. Fletcher, "The Role of the State in the Administration of Elementary Education" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Texas Library, 1944).

1. Flag display	45
2. Days of special observance	42
3. Constitution of the United States	35
4. All instruction in English	31
5. History of the United States	29
6. History of the state	23
7. Civil government	21
8. Constitution of the state	20
9. Patriotism	15
10. Flag exercises	15
11. Citizenship	13
12. Foreign language	12
13. Government of the state	7
14. Instruction of seditious or disloyal character	6
15. Government of the United States	5
16. Declaration of Independence	5
17. Patriotic songs	4
18. Civil War—unless fair and impartial	1
TOTAL	<u>329</u>

The second group of prescriptions relates to instruction in health. It includes requirements about teaching physiology and hygiene, physical education, personal hygiene, sanitation, physical examination of pupils, communicable diseases, accident prevention, birth control, the effects of tobacco, stimulants, and narcotics.

1. Stimulants and narcotics	45
2. Physiology and hygiene	41
3. Physical education	30
4. Physical examination	25
5. Accident prevention	14
6. Personal hygiene	13
7. Communicable diseases	11
8. Sanitation	9
9. Tobacco	4
10. Placards	1
11. Birth control (instruction forbidden)	1
TOTAL	<u>194</u>

Laws relating to instruction regarding the conservation of life and property are classified in the third group.

1. Fire drill	27
2. Fire prevention	17
3. Thrift	6
4. Conservation of natural resources and wild life	2
TOTAL	<u>52</u>

The fourth group of laws relates to instruction designed to promote the humane treatment and protection of animals and birds.

1. Humane treatment and protection of animals and birds	18
2. Importance of animals and birds	15
3. Animal experimentation (forbidden)	5
TOTAL	<u>38</u>

Fundamental subjects are classified in the fifth group.

1. Geography	28
2. Reading	28
3. Arithmetic	27
4. English	27
5. Penmanship	27
6. Spelling	27
TOTAL	<u>164</u>

The sixth group consists of practical and cultural subjects.

1. Agriculture	15
2. Music	13
3. Drawing	11
4. Household arts	8
5. Industrial arts	7
6. Art	4
7. Exhibitions	3
8. Bookkeeping	2
9. Cotton grading	1
TOTAL	<u>64</u>

The seventh group comprises statutory provisions relating to religious and ethical subjects.

1. Sectarian doctrine (instruction prohibited)	38
2. Social and ethical outcomes	18
3. Bible reading (required or permitted)	16
4. Morals	13
5. Manners	7
6. Ethnocentrism (forbidden)	1
7. Publications of immoral and pernicious nature (use forbidden)	1
8. Criminal syndicalism (forbidden)	1
TOTAL	<u>95</u>

All subjects not easily classifiable in the preceding seven groups are placed in the miscellaneous, or eighth, group.

1. Elementary science	5
2. Algebra	3
3. Darwinism (forbidden)	3
4. Forestry and plant life	2
5. Metric system	1
6. Dictionary	1
7. Consumers' cooperative and cooperative marketing	1
8. Legally constituted school of healing, science, or profession	1
TOTAL	17

The summaries that have just been presented reveal the extent to which the states have exercised their authority in prescribing and controlling the fields of study in the elementary schools. The specific features mentioned in the laws vary a great deal from state to state, but each of the forty-eight states has some legal prescriptions regarding the elementary school curriculum. The total number of legislative prescriptions increased from 564 in 1903 to 954 in 1943.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has carried forward the main theses developed in Chapter 2 to show their continued application in the life of the school-age child. In order that these matters may receive further clarification and meaning the reader should review the chapter summary at the close of Chapter 2. In addition, the present chapter has given brief descriptions of thirteen major phases of the educative environment of the school-age child so that the reader may see more clearly the scope and nature (1) of the influences affecting the school-age child, and (2) of the learnings of the child. This breadth of understanding is necessary if the teacher is to deal intelligently with the child in school. Emphasis was placed on the fact that life at school is but one of thirteen major areas of the child's total educative environment. Life at school was divided into two phases: (a) pupil-pupil and teacher-pupil relations, and (b) the curriculum. The importance that the American people attach to schooling is reflected in the fact that public education has been accepted as a function of the state and that the lawmakers in each of the forty-eight states have prescribed various subjects to be taught in the elementary schools.

The major ideas developed in this chapter may be stated as follows:

1. The child's educative environment is as broad as the child's activities of living.

2. Life at school is but one of the major phases of the child's educative environment.
3. The curriculum consists of all the activities and experiences that the child has while he is under the auspices of the school.
4. Because of differences in heredity, previous experience, and maturity, it is unlikely that any two children could have identical educative environments.
5. The child's out-of-school activities and experiences have a definite relation to the child's reactions, responses, and learnings in school.
6. Public education has been accepted as a state function in this country.
7. Every state in the union has recognized its responsibility for public education and has passed laws prescribing that certain subjects be taught; the prescriptions vary considerably from state to state.
8. State laws as well as the general public consider elementary education an extremely important part of a child's total education.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Blair, Arthur Witt, and William Burton. *Growth and Development of the Preadolescent*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951. Chap. 3, "The Preadolescent Is Subjected to Strong Cultural Impositions."
2. Gesell, Arnold, and Frances L. Ilg. *Child Development*. Part II, "The Child from Five to Ten." New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949. (See Index for "family," "home," "play," "comics," "radio," and so forth.)
3. Harris, Dale B. "How Student Teachers Identify Responsibility in Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 45 (April, 1954), 233-239.
4. Jersild, Arthur T., *Child Psychology* (4th ed.). New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. Chap. 16, "Children's Interests and Play Activities," Chap. 17, "Children's Ideals, Morals, and Religion."
5. Martin, William E., and Celia Burns Stendler. *Child Development*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co., Inc., 1953. Chap. 8, "Growing Up in Our Society," Chap. 13, "The Child in the Family."
6. Stiles, Frances S. "Developing an Understanding of Human Behavior at the Elementary School Level," *Journal of Educational Research*, 43 (March, 1950), 516-524.
7. Tryon, Caroline, and Jesse W. Lilienthal. "Guideposts in Child Growth and Development," *National Education Association Journal*, 39 (March, 1950), 188-189.

Suggested Student Activities

1. Make a study of the comic books read by an individual child.
2. Sit in on a children's radio or TV program several times and evaluate it in terms of such standards as these. (a) Does it meet the child's need

for entertainment but at the same time provide wholesome adventure, humor, fantasy, and suspense? (b) Does it give the child a sincere, constructive, informative, balanced picture of life? (c) Does it uphold acceptable standards of behavior and promote democratic and spiritual values? (d) Does it meet high standards of production—is acting good, and so forth.

3. Discuss a film on Camping. A suggestion is *School Time in Camp* (16 mm., sound, color, 18 minutes; Life Camps, Inc., 369 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York).

4. Observe and record the play activities of a primary- and an intermediate-grade group.

5. List some children's library books that have the same qualities that are so much liked in the comics.



The Purposes of Elementary Schools

The preceding two chapters have briefly surveyed the child's educative environment from birth to the age of twelve or thirteen. The fact that life at school was only one of the important educative influences in the child's environment was emphasized. Since the child obtains his education from many sources, the reader may wonder what role the school does, can, or should perform in this total picture. Specifically, what are the contributions or functions of the elementary school? To find a satisfactory answer to this question several factors need to be considered.

Education in Its Societal Setting

Two points developed in preceding chapters have special application here: the education of a child is an inclusive, continuous process that goes on all the time anywhere and everywhere the child may be; and children learn from their interaction with their environment. The environment for a particular child consists of all the culture of the people among whom he grows up: the geography of the region; material objects, which are the products of man's activity; and nonmaterial traits, which include a vast and pervasive array of behavior habits and patterns.

Moore and Cole explain the term "culture" as referring to the entire social tradition of a people, including the knowledge, beliefs, morals, laws, arts, modes of communication and trade, occupational techniques, and the physical tools and accumulations.¹ Obviously this

¹ Clyde B. Moore and William L. Cole, *Sociology in Educational Practice* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952), p. 46.

environment or culture is noticeably different in different parts of the world. One child learns to speak English, another Spanish; one child's mainstay is rice, another's is meat and vegetables; one child rides in automobiles, another in canoes. The cultural heritage of any child is the accumulated race experience, which is incorporated in the current mode of living of the people into whose midst the child is born or reared.

In earlier times, and in primitive societies today, children were inducted into the competencies and ideology of adult living without the aid of formal schooling. The children acquired the cultural heritage of their elders by participation in the ongoing life activities and by such informal instruction or admonition as their parents and associates could give them. Much of what children learn in any society is learned in this way. In complex societies, however, such incidental teaching is not enough.

With perhaps rare exceptions, parents in any society want their children to acquire the ideals and aspirations of the existing culture. In fact, it is highly important that children acquire the essentials of that culture; unless they do, they will be unqualified to sustain themselves in it and the culture itself would disappear. Education of the children is an important method whereby a social group sustains itself through continuous self-renewal. Education of the immature members of the group, therefore, becomes essential to the survival and advancement of the group. The very fact that education is essential to group survival makes it the keystone of cultural survival and advancement.

Because of this fundamental relation between the education of children and the continuity and advancement of the culture, it is axiomatic that the essential features of the culture should be important educational objectives. Educational purposes are thus deeply rooted in the life of the people.

The Unique Functions of Schools

In simple societies the informal and incidental (but no less purposeful and effective) methods of education seem adequate. As a society becomes more complex and advanced in its culture, with accompanying division of labor, the informal methods become inadequate. There gradually develops an increasing number of things that children need to learn, but the out-of-school environment makes no provision for teaching them and parents do not have the time or the talent to teach them to their children. Consequently the specialized function of teaching came into existence.

It is assumed that the earliest manifestation of a specialized or

formal educational agency with a conscious educational purpose is represented by the instruction in early tribal life given by persons of superior skill and knowledge. In some tribes certain persons manifested outstanding abilities in the formulation of tribal customs and ideals; these men began to be thought of as the priestly or teaching class and were given the responsibility of transmitting these tribal customs and *ideals to the young of the tribe.*² Later in history this special teaching function became still further differentiated and there resulted what we now know as our institutionalized system of schools.

It should be clear, therefore, that schools from the very beginning of their establishment had unique or specialized teaching functions assigned to them. The specific educational tasks of a school vary with the culture, ideology, and aspirations of the particular society of which the school is a part. As we have seen, during early Colonial times in our own country the specific functions allocated to the schools were instruction in reading and writing.

Since those early Colonial days the specific educational tasks of the school have changed a great deal. Some authorities maintain that at present in this country society has assigned five functions to the school. The first of these is that the school shall assist in perpetuating the culture by giving instruction on those essentials of the culture that are not learned adequately through out-of-school experiences. The teaching of reading is an illustration of this. The second function pertains to the *development of new social patterns, new ways of behaving in new situations.* Society expects the school to instill in children the idea of progress and to help them adjust to new and changed ways of doing things. The third function is the development of a creative role; children need to be encouraged to use their ingenuity in discovering new and better ways of doing or making or using things. The fourth function is that of coordination by the school of all the educational agencies of the community, state, and nation. As a fifth function the school is asked to supplement these agencies by accepting responsibility for those aspects of child growth and development that are not adequately cared for by them.

Although these five functions seem fairly clear in their general import, they need to be translated into specific objectives and a program of action for the schools. Even the general implications inherent in the preceding discussion suggest that the school has developed into a place where children are provided with a specialized environment as contrasted with a chance environment. At least for the earlier years of childhood, the school environment has been made a simplified environ-

² R. Freeman Butts, *A Cultural History of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947), p. 19.

ment in which the more difficult and complex aspects of the adult world have been removed. To the extent that the harsh and corrupt practices of everyday life have been banished, the school provides a purified environment. For most children the school offers experiences much broader than they would otherwise have.

The Objectives of Education

These five functions of schools are too general to be a practical framework for the operation of schools. To translate the five functions into workable objectives is not an easy task. Many persons and groups, from time to time, formulated their interpretations of the objectives of education. A formulation prepared by the Educational Policies Commission under the sponsorship of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators has been widely accepted and used as a frame of reference in public schools.² Because of its wide use, this formulation of objectives is taken as a basis for the discussion of objectives of education in this chapter and in subsequent chapters of this book. The outline of objectives prepared by this commission is formulated in such a way that it embodies the five functions of schools and is duly oriented to the societal setting of schools in the United States. A careful reading of the entire report will show the extent to which the objectives are evolved out of the essential characteristics of a *democratic society* and the frame of values held basic by the American people. The list of objectives also reflects the ideals and aspirations of people in a democracy and what those people cherish for their children.

Since each person interested in education should read in its entirety the original publication of the Educational Policies Commission, space is taken here to reproduce only in outline form the list of objectives. Note that they are arranged into four major groups.

I. THE OBJECTIVES OF SELF-REALIZATION

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

² *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1938).

Health Knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Esthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

II. THE OBJECTIVES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Cooperation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

III. THE OBJECTIVES OF ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

IV. THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.

A more recent formulation of objectives has been made in the report prepared for the *Mid-century Committee on Outcomes in Elementary Education*.⁴ This report assumes that education is for the purpose of bringing about desirable behavioral changes, these changes being grouped under the following types: (a) knowledge and understanding, (b) skill and competence, (c) attitudes and interests, and (d) action pattern. The nine broad areas of elementary learning in which behavioral changes of the four types named above are taking place are listed as (1) physical development, health, and body care; (2) individual social and emotional development; (3) ethical behavior; (4) social relations; (5) the social world; (6) the physical world; (7) esthetic development; (8) communication; and (9) quantitative relations. Kearney's graphic representation of the intersecting of the broad curriculum areas with the major behavior categories is given in Figure 1. A fifth column, *Determining Conditions*, was added to emphasize the fact that there are many factors besides the school that affect the realization of educational objectives; these determining factors may represent the biological and sociological context in which children and the schools carry on together. This chart also indicates that growth, development, maturation, and learning are regarded as continuums and that outcomes are to be considered in terms of the range of abilities

⁴ Nolan C. Kearney, *Elementary School Objectives* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953), pp. 35-40.

within a group of children or among traits in one child at each of three levels.

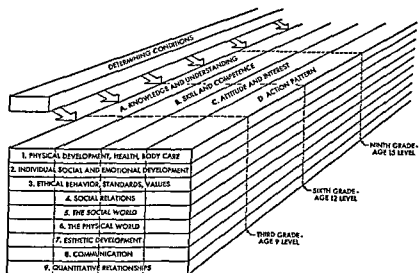


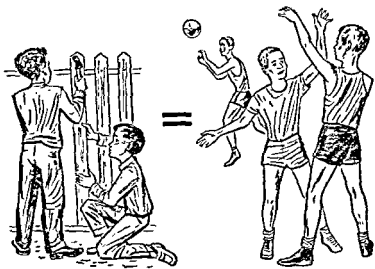
Fig. 1—The Behavioral Continuum—Broad Curriculum Areas Intersecting Major Behavior Categories.

Source: Nolan C. Kearney, *Elementary School Objectives* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953), p. 38. Reprinted by permission.

Similarity of Purposes of Elementary Schools and Secondary Schools

The list of objectives just quoted from the report of the Educational Policies Commission was intended to cover or to be applicable to the complete program of public education from the nursery school through the senior high school; therefore, these general objectives or purposes of education constitute the broad goals for each of the units in our system of public schools—the elementary schools, the secondary schools, and to some extent the junior colleges. This communality of general purposes is an important fact for us to recognize. Along with this recognition, however, should come the realization that each segment of the school system has its particular contributions to make to these general goals, such contributions to be determined by the maturity of the age groups served. The program whereby each unit in the school system makes its particular contributions determines the characteristics of that unit; it does not imply unique or different functions or purposes.

A careful study of the list of objectives will show that some objectives are given greater stress at one school level than at another, but there are few, if any, items in the list that do not receive some attention at all levels. Speech and reading (from Group I) are examples



Teamwork is important no matter what the age.

of objectives stressed a great deal at all school levels. Homemaking (from Group II) is given some attention in the elementary school but stressed more in junior and senior high schools. Other illustrations could be similarly compared, but it is not likely that the reader will find many, if any, items that do not receive some attention at all school levels.

School Purposes as Related to Individual Pupils

The objectives or purposes of education are general guides to the teacher regarding the nature of the school's contribution to children's education. They thus serve as criteria for determining the *what* and the *how* (in part) of the school curriculum. They also indicate desirable levels or degrees of attainment to be achieved by pupils by the time they complete their sojourn in the elementary and secondary schools. Obviously the objectives are not expected to be attained before completion of the secondary school and are not to be thought of as

levels of maturity or development that pupils could be expected to reach by the end of the elementary school period.

The elementary school endeavors to assist and encourage each child to make as much progress toward the attainment of the various objectives as the child's ability and background will permit. Since children differ widely in ability, in preschool background, and in the nature and scope of out-of-school experiences during the school-age period, it is only natural and logical that they should start school with widely different maturities (physically, socially, emotionally, and mentally), should derive varying amounts of benefit from their participation in the school program, and consequently should reach the age of twelve or more (that is, at the time they should enter the secondary school) with widely differing maturities. The school cannot and ought not to attempt to have all children make equal progress during their sojourn in school or expect all pupils to have made the same progress toward the attainment of the objectives by the time they leave the elementary school. The fundamental responsibility of the school is to help every child experience optimum growth and development in terms of his abilities and growth pattern.

The fact that the school cannot and should not attempt or expect identical development from all children does not mean that the school applies different objectives to different children. The program of school activities is carried forward in such a manner that all pupils have opportunities for development along the same lines but equal response and equal benefits are not expected. The school is obligated to adapt instruction to individual differences, but an intelligent plan for meeting individual differences does not mean that there are fundamental differences in the objectives sought.

The Effect of Community Needs on the Purposes and Program of the School

Although the objectives as previously outlined may be accepted as universally applicable in all elementary schools in the United States, minor variations should be made in terms of the circumstances in a given community. Some elementary schools are located in areas in cities or in the country in which the educational opportunities are particularly meager. In such cases the school might give added emphasis to the study of such topics as nutrition and balanced meals and to activities such as library reading, school-sponsored recreation, and cooperative procedures in work and play. In other cases the school might be serving children who start school without any familiarity with the English language, in which case the school should give special attention

to the teaching of English. In still other situations the school might be serving children from very privileged homes or children in areas containing two or more racial groups; in the latter cases the school might give special emphasis to the development of tolerance, an understanding of other groups, and an appreciation of their contributions. The basic idea is that each school should adjust its program to the needs of the children in that particular area.³

Adaptation of the school curriculum to the special needs of children in a given locality does not mean any fundamental change in the general objectives of the school.

Similarity of Objectives in Urban and Rural Areas

On occasion some writers have insisted that rural schools should have objectives different from those of urban schools. The chief argument for different objectives is that rural children have different backgrounds, live in a different environment, and as adults will be more likely to continue to live on farms. The present writers do not concur in that viewpoint. It is their conviction that the general purposes of education are the same regardless of the geographical location of the child's residence. All children are to become citizens of the United States, not citizens of a given state only, or city citizens or farm citizens. All children need to attain the objectives of self-realization and the other three groups of objectives. Furthermore, the fundamentals that make up a child's education under each of these four groups of objectives are the same for all children. Kindness, courtesy, tolerance, consideration for others, a concern for the general welfare, the acceptance of one's citizenship responsibilities, the concepts and generalizations of science, the number system, and the language arts, to mention but a few, are much the same wherever one might live. The geography of one's residence does not alter these universal objectives. Insistence upon the universality of general objectives does not imply uniformity of learning activities and resources.⁴ Each school should develop learning activities oriented to local conditions and utilizing local resources.

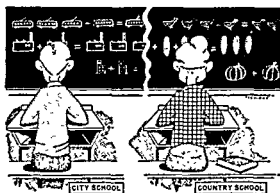
There is also the factor of increased mobility of people. Farm folk migrate to the city and city folk migrate to the farm. There is likewise

³ Effie C. Bathurst, *Where Children Live Affects Curriculum*, Bulletin No. 7 (Washington: U. S. Office of Education, 1950).

⁴ Fannie Wyche Dunn, *The Child in the Rural Environment*, Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education (Washington: National Education Association, 1951), Chap. 13.

much migration from one state to another. During the war years the people of the United States engaged in almost a mass reshuffling of the population, and it is very likely that this reshuffling will continue on a larger scale than before the war. This interchange of population gives further support to the argument for similarity of objectives for urban and rural schools.

However, similarity of objectives for urban and rural schools does not mean identical curriculums for the two groups. The preceding section explained the importance of adjusting the curriculum in each school to the needs of the pupils being served. The same generalizations apply to urban and rural schools. For example, the concepts and generalizations of science are the same everywhere: in a city school



Arithmetic is easy if it deals with familiar things.

children are helped to understand them by utilizing activities involving the flowers, trees, pets, electrical appliances, and sanitation methods found in the city, while rural children build their study around the plants, animals, farm and household equipment, and sanitation methods utilized on the farm. Likewise, two plus two are four in the country as well as in the city, but rural children acquire mastery over this addition fact by counting objects common to their environment, whereas city children count objects common to theirs. Such variations in content (and method) are nothing more than an intelligent adaptation of instruction to the backgrounds and interests of children; they do not represent any fundamental difference in general objectives. Extreme illustrations could, of course, be cited, but the essential point is that within reasonable limits such adaptation of content and methods does not alter the general goals sought.

Translating Objectives into School Activities

A list of objectives does not in itself constitute a school program. Objectives tell us the kinds of values or the types of growth and development that children should derive from their school activities. As guideposts for teachers in determining what school activities should do for children, objectives are also a general guide to what should constitute a school program. Objectives may also be used to evaluate the effectiveness of a school program. If children are not achieving the types of growth and development implied by the objectives, then the program of school life must be improper or ineffective.

Objectives must be translated into activities in which children engage. In Chapters 2 and 3 it was made clear that activities consist of the things we do, the things that occupy our time. Experiences consist of what takes place in the individual in the course of, or as a result of, engaging in activities. His experiences, then, make up the individual's learnings or the types of growth and development that are taking place in him. Since his learnings are associated with or grow out of his activities, it is essential that he engage in activities in order to grow and develop. The attainment of objectives results from pupils' participation in activities that a school program must provide.

A few illustrations may help to clarify the generalizations stated in the preceding paragraph. First-graders are listening to a story that is being read to them by their teacher. As far as the children are concerned, the activity is "listening to a story." In the process of listening to the story the children are getting practice and are improving their abilities to listen attentively, to follow the sequence of events in a story, and to realize more and more that printed materials contain items of interest and value to them. In addition, the children have to learn how to group and seat themselves so that the story may be heard to best advantage and how to conduct themselves during the reading so that all may hear or so that no one is interfering with the desire of others to listen carefully. The activity of listening to a story thus has inherent in it the potentiality for several desirable types of growth and development. It makes contributions toward *reading, sight, hearing, intellectual interests, and character* in the list of objectives in Group I, and toward *respect for humanity, cooperation, and courtesy* in the Group II list.

A sixth-grade class is planning a trip to the local post office to observe at firsthand how the mail is handled and to ask the postmaster certain questions. From the children's standpoint the activity is "learning how the postal system operates." The trip to the post office is an

associated activity that is merely part of the larger one. In planning the trip to the post office, much background reading was done but some questions remained unanswered. Hence the pupils made the list of questions to be presented to the postmaster. No doubt much discussion took place before the final list of questions was agreed upon. Further discussion and organization of ideas took place in determining mode of transportation to the post office and in making the appointment with the postmaster. Without going into further detail, it is evident that this activity had inherent in it the potentiality for many desirable outcomes for the pupils. The reader can easily make his own list of the objectives of education that received attention in this activity.

A school program operates through a series of activities, each one of which may enhance various types of growth and the development essential for the attainment of the objectives of education. The educational value of any one activity depends upon the nature and breadth of the activity and how well it is carried forward. The scope and variety of activities found in a given school depend upon the concept of education that prevails in the school, the range of the objectives utilized by the school, and the extent to which the activities have been selected in terms of their appropriateness and usefulness in helping children to attain the objectives of education. Activities are not good or bad per se; they must be evaluated in terms of their educational value. Most activities have multiple educational value in that they provide the possibility of enhancing children's development along several desirable lines.

The next five chapters describe the ways in which schools proceed in their efforts to assist children in achieving the objectives of education.

Chapter Summary

In our society schools have been assigned five functions: (1) assistance in perpetuating the culture; (2) development of new social patterns, new ways of behaving in new situations; (3) development of a creative role in the individual; (4) coordination of all the educational agencies; and (5) supplementation of these agencies by assuming responsibility for those aspects of child development not adequately cared for by other agencies. *These functions of the school are reflected in and expressed through the objectives of education, which, for present purposes, have been outlined in four groups: (1) the objectives of self-realization, (2) the objectives of human relationship, (3) the objectives of economic efficiency, and (4) the objectives of civic responsibility.*

The following major ideas were developed in this chapter.

1. In any culture the character of children's education depends upon the demands of the culture, the ideals and aspirations of the people who make up the social group, and the conception people have about education. In a sense all these factors are integral parts of the culture, so that one may generalize by saying that children's education depends upon the character of the culture in which the children are reared.

2. In societies in which formal schooling prevails, schools are assigned definite functions.

3. The objectives of education represent an interpretation of the functions of the school and reflect the nature of the culture and the conception of education held by the cultural group. The objectives of education thus represent a form of social policy.

4. In the United States the general purposes of education are applicable to all units of our system of public education.

5. Objectives must be translated or converted into activities in order that an educational program may move forward.

6. Life at school or the program of school life consists of many and varied activities, all of which together provide the child with opportunities for the attainment of the accepted objectives of education.

7. Most activities provide opportunity for multiple learnings.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Baker, James F. *Elementary Evaluative Criteria*. Boston: Boston University, School of Education, 1953.
2. Caswell, Hollis L., and A. Wellesley Foshay. *Education in the Elementary School* (2d ed.). New York: American Book Co., 1950. Chap. 4, "Aims of Education."
3. Eye, Glen E., and Kurt R. Schoenoff. *Objectives of Education*. Chicago: Erle Press, 1951.
4. Nolan C. Kearney. *Elementary School Objectives*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953.

Suggested Student Activities

1. View the filmstrip *Objectives of Education* (Erle Press, Chicago).
2. Visit a local elementary school and make an inventory of the activities in which you see pupils of different age levels engaging. Take several of the activities you observed in the school and try to identify which of the objectives quoted in the chapter were given attention through each.
3. Evaluate yourself by checking the list of objectives quoted to see if you have the characteristics of an "educated person." Which of these objectives do you think your elementary school teachers stressed?



Educating for Self-Realization

The chief purpose of this chapter and the next three is to give as vivid a portrayal as possible of the means utilized by elementary schools to assist children in achieving the objectives of education outlined in Chapter 4. The treatment cannot be complete because the total curriculum in an elementary school is too extensive to be described in its entirety in four short chapters. An effort will be made, however, to give a representative sampling of the activities commonly found in elementary schools today and, wherever possible, to give summary outlines of these activities so that the reader may get an over-all picture of the whole program.

A secondary purpose of these four chapters (5, 6, 7, and 8) is to focus the reader's attention upon the activities that make up the program of school life. The school has an important job to do and it is imperative that school time be utilized effectively in helping children to obtain from it that portion of their education that they ought to be receiving from the school. At all times every school activity should be evaluated critically in terms of its value in contributing to children's education. In other words, the school program should contain only those activities that have the greatest potentiality for children's development in the direction of the purposes of education. The child's total time in school is too limited to permit it to be squandered in activities of little value. Heretofore in altogether too many schools the relation between school activities and the purposes of education has been too vague or uncertain to give any assurance that children were spending time in school in the most profitable manner.

No attempt is made in these four chapters to portray a school

program in organized form. Every enterprise of any consequence must organize its purposes and methods of procedure into a workable plan. Translating objectives and activities into a workable school program is the function of Chapter 9.

The Importance of Educating for Self-Realization

There are two inseparable aspects of every individual's life: the person himself and the society in which he lives. In order that the individual person may live a fruitful, rich, happy, useful life he must have or develop a strong, healthy body, the necessary skills and proficiencies, the appropriate attitudes toward work, self-support, civic responsibility, relations with other people, and so on. Without at least a reasonable degree of ability to be a self-supporting, desirable citizen, the individual is incapable of sustaining himself in any society. These personal requirements for a respected and self-respecting, self-sustaining member of a social group vary for different cultures, but at the moment our attention is focused upon these requirements in the culture that now prevails in the United States. The person whose individual development does not come about in the process of growing up—or does not continue throughout adult life—is denied a normal life. He is useless to himself and to society. If he is to live, society in some manner must take care of him.

Society, on the other hand, depends for its strength, general character, and progress on the capabilities, ideals, attitudes, and achievements of its members. A social group is necessarily made up of individuals and therefore cannot rise far above the individuals of which it is composed. A social group is more than and different from a mere collection of individuals, since by cooperative effort the group has a strength greater than the mere arithmetical sum of the strength or capabilities of the individuals. The psychology of the group is also different from the arithmetical sum of the characteristics of the individuals or of the strongest leader in the group. Nevertheless, the kind of society that prevails depends upon the kinds of individuals that compose it. Individual development is therefore basic to the development and welfare of society as well as to the self-realization of the individual.

The importance of educating for self-realization is inherent in the nature of the personal and social requirements of an individual's life. In bringing about that individual development that makes self-realization possible, care must be exercised to ensure a socially minded individual. He must direct the results of individual development toward the welfare of society as well as his own, rather than use his individual development at the expense of or to the detriment of the general

versation, (3) giving and following directions, (4) reporting, (5) cooperative group planning through informal discussion, (6) utilizing parliamentary procedure to affect group decision and action, (7) introducing people, (8) utilizing specialized skills as speaker and as listener in discussing a controversial question or in debate, (9) broadcasting and listening to the radio, (10) taking part in dramatizations as player and as audience, (11) participating in choral reading, and (12) making and listening to special-occasion talks.¹

The school through its curriculum endeavors to provide children with activities that will be effective in helping them to acquire desired speaking proficiencies in each of the above-named broad phases of oral communication. The majority of elementary schools today provide both indirect and direct instruction through many channels. Indirect channels are the many opportunities that arise throughout the school day, including those activities pertaining to classroom living in general and those in connection with subject fields. Many examples of such activities could be given, but a few will suffice. Many situations arise in the classroom every day that the alert teacher uses for furthering the development of language skills. In many primary rooms informal conversation takes place in the daily "Show and Tell" period. In the middle grades there are many opportunities for group planning and discussion in solving such problems as planning a class party or planning the part that the class can have in an all-school project. Planning an excursion to be made in connection with one of the problems being studied in social studies offers opportunities for oral communication. Planning the excursion involves group discussion and planning, asking and answering questions, telephone conversation for making arrangements, and giving and following directions; after the excursion had been made, further possible language activities include sharing the information through conversation, discussion, and reporting.

The direct channel for helping children increase their speaking proficiencies consists of the subject field of language for which many elementary schools set aside a separate period in the school day in grades above the second. Through the various indirect and direct channels the school endeavors to provide children each year and in each grade with a variety of activities that will help them to successively higher levels of proficiency in speaking in each of the types of situations previously listed.²

¹ Summarized from *Experiencing the Language Arts*, Bulletin No. 34 (Tallahassee, Fla.: Florida State Department of Education, 1948), pp. 89-113.

² The specific proficiencies sought by the elementary school in each of these areas or the methods and materials used by the school in their development are not treated in this book. The student will encounter these phases of the instructional problem as he takes more advanced courses in elementary education.

The range and complexity of the instructional activities utilized in the subject field of language might be suggested by studying the table of contents of a recently published series of texts in this field. In a textbook for the third grade the theme for Unit I is "First Days at School." The chapter headings and some of the subheadings are as follows:

UNIT I. FIRST DAYS AT SCHOOL

OFF TO SCHOOL

- Talking about school
- Talking in sentences
- Studying sentences
- Using *saw* and *seen* correctly
- Writing names

HELPING YOUR TEACHER

- Making a list
- Making rules for discussions or conversation
- Saying words clearly

WRITING NEAT PAPERS

PROOFREADING PAPERS

- Finding mistakes in written work
- Learning to proofread

IMPROVING YOUR SPELLING

- Using *by* and *buy* correctly

DICTATION EXERCISE

PRACTICE AND REVIEW EXERCISES³

In the same series of texts the theme for Unit 8 in the book for the fifth grade is "Reporting What You See and Hear." The subheadings for this unit are as follows:

UNIT 8. REPORTING WHAT YOU SEE AND HEAR

KEEPING YOUR EYES OPEN

- Using your eyes
- Making word pictures
- Finding *nouns* and *adjectives*
- Writing a description

USING YOUR EARS

- Listing sound words
- Using sound words
- Writing a paragraph

³ Harry A. Greene and others, *Building Better English*, Book 3 (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Co., 1952), p. 2 Reprinted by permission

LEARNING FROM THE RADIO

- Discussing radio programs
- Getting information by listening
- Writing a business letter
- Giving and judging reports

DICTATION EXERCISE VII

PRACTICE AND REVIEW EXERCISES⁴

Reading

The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently. In modern society the ability to read well all types of material is fundamental to self-realization, civic participation, and vocational efficiency. Ability to read one's native language is so essential that elementary schools everywhere consider instruction in reading one of their major tasks.

Life situations in which one needs to read are so numerous and varied that it would be extremely difficult to provide a complete inventory. McKee, after a careful study of the reading activities in which the child engages in and out of school, classified these activities into the following groups.

1. Those activities in which the child reads silently for the purpose of gathering and digesting information.
2. Those activities in which the child reads silently for the purpose of securing recreation.
3. Those activities in which the child reads orally for informational purposes.
4. Those activities in which the child reads orally for recreational purposes.⁵

Elementary schools in this country have quite generally adopted the objectives for instruction in reading that were presented by the National Committee on Reading in 1925.⁶ Three general objectives for the reading program were set forth by this committee.

1. Reading should extend one's experience.

⁴ Harry A. Greene and others, *Building Better English*, Book 5 (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Co., 1952), p. 6. Reprinted by permission.

⁵ Paul McKee, *The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1948), p. 127. Reprinted by permission.

⁶ *Report of the National Committee on Reading*, N.S.S.E. Twenty-fourth Yearbook (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1925), Part I, Chap. 2. See also *The Teaching of Reading*, N.S.S.E. Thirty-sixth Yearbook, 1937, Part I, and *Reading in the Elementary School*, N.S.S.E. Forty-eighth Yearbook, 1949, Part I.

2. Reading instruction should develop strong motives for and permanent interests in reading.

3. Reading instruction should develop desirable attitudes and effective habits and skills.

Although there are many variations among schools in the way they assist children to acquire proficiency in reading, certain features of the instructional programs in reading are sufficiently common to most schools that a generalized description may be given.

1. Formal reading instruction in the first grade is preceded by a preparatory period in which readiness for beginning reading is developed. The preparatory period varies in length from a few weeks to several months, depending upon the amount of preparation that the children need. Usually first-grade classes are divided into several smaller groups, the length of the preparatory period varying with the length of time each group requires in order that its first experiences in reading be successful and pleasurable.

2. Initial instruction in reading is based upon words, phrases, and sentences already familiar to the children, so that the initial task in learning to read is merely the task of working with printed symbols rather than a multiple task of vocabulary development, speech development, and working with printed symbols. Initial instruction in reading is usually informal and is built around firsthand experiences that the pupils have already had. The content frequently consists of stories that teacher and pupils compose.

3. Throughout all the grades the content used in reading instruction is carefully graded according to difficulty of words used, sentence length, sentence structure, and complexity of ideas. Learning to read is quite a complicated and difficult undertaking, and a great deal of research has been done in an effort to discover the fundamental psychological processes involved and to provide graded materials which would lead the child to higher and higher levels of reading proficiency.

4. An extensive amount of reading at each grade level of materials that the pupil can read readily has been found to be an effective method of improving reading ability. Schools with modern reading programs are therefore providing an increasing variety and amount of materials to read at each grade level.

5. Although they differ considerably in their ways of carrying forward the instructional program in reading, most schools provide one or more class periods a day in each grade for planned instruction in reading. It is usually during this period that the basic reading texts are used.

6. In general, one may think of the field of reading as having two

phases: learning to read and reading to learn. Both phases prevail throughout the school program; that is, in each of the grades and in all the subject fields. It is for these reasons that reading permeates the entire curriculum and is given attention in every subject field.

Writing

The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively. Self-realization in its manifold aspects requires that a person be able to write well the kinds of materials needed in writing in life situations. Writing includes three major aspects with which elementary schools concern themselves: speed and legibility in handwriting; correct spelling of the words used in writing; and correctness in form, content, capitalization, and punctuation in written composition. These three aspects are important only as they help the individual to do a better job of meeting the situations in life demanding written expression.

During the early years of a child's life his communicative needs are all met through oral expression; however, beginning to some extent in the first grade and increasingly each year thereafter, he finds himself in situations in which he needs to express his ideas through writing. These situations as given by Tidyman and Butterfield may be summarized into the following groups: (1) the need for communicating with people by means of letters; (2) the need for written activities involved in study and research such as making records and charts, preparing lists and outlines, writing notes and summaries, and preparing indexes and bibliographies; (3) the need for writing in giving information such as reports, explanations and directions, announcements and advertisements, minutes of meetings, in filling in forms, and in taking tests; and (4) the need for a means of expressing creativity such as in original poems, stories, and plays.²

The objective of instruction in written composition is to help children acquire the proficiencies needed in each of these types of writing. Various methods are used by the schools to achieve this objective. Perhaps the commonest device is the so-called daily "language period" in which the class activities are built around the content of a graded series of language textbooks. Such language texts usually embody a large variety of activities in oral and written composition and vocabulary development. The language period thus incorporates many activities concerned with speech development, handwriting, spelling, and writing.

Few schools rely entirely upon the activities of the language

² Summarized from Willard F. Tidyman and Marguerite Butterfield, *Teaching the Language Arts* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951), Chaps. 8, 10, 11, 12.

period for instruction in written composition. Written work undertaken in such subject fields as social studies, science, and arithmetic provides opportunities for helping children to improve their writing. Then there is also the need for writing in connection with the school paper or annual, invitations associated with special programs and social events, announcements and reports for the school safety patrol, the student council, and assembly or auditorium programs. These various indirect methods of teaching written composition usually are more functional in nature than the activities of the language period since they are associated with more lifelike situations. Some schools have developed these indirect and more functional channels so extensively and effectively that the separate language period is seldom used; that is, its use is reserved for such times as the children as a group need specific instruction or supervised practice on some specific aspect of written composition.

Handwriting and spelling are necessary aids to written communication. When the writing done by children is purposeful to them, they can understand that legible handwriting and correct spelling not only facilitate communication but should be considered a courtesy rightfully expected by the person reading the material.⁸ The first handwriting is done under the guidance of the teacher. If the children have need for conveying their ideas in written form to someone, they dictate their ideas to the teacher, who writes them down, and then the children copy what the teacher has written. In the first and second grades the children and the teacher use the manuscript style in which the letters more or less resemble those seen in reading. There are several reasons for the use of this style of writing at this level. In the first place, manuscript writing requires much less muscular coordination than cursive writing; therefore, it is much easier for young children, who have not acquired full muscular control. Much of the first writing is done at the chalk board or on large sheets of paper since these children cannot use the small finger muscles to advantage. A second reason for using manuscript in the first two grades is to utilize the child's growing familiarity with the printed form of the words in his reading. The use of manuscript thus avoids confronting the child with a dual learning task—learning one form for words in his reading and another in his writing. The transition from the manuscript to the cursive style is usually made in the third grade. Some schools still have a daily handwriting practice period of ten or more minutes each day throughout the elementary grades as a direct means of helping children acquire the desired proficiency in handwriting. The writing activities during these practice

⁸ Helen K. Mackintosh and Wilhelmina Hill, *How Children Learn to Write*, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 2 (Washington U. S. Government Printing Office 1953)

periods are carefully graded to provide definite progression in instruction as the children move from grade to grade. Some effort is made during these practice periods to guide children in practicing to correct individual difficulties.

A less direct method of handwriting instruction is the attention given to it in all the written work undertaken in the various subject fields and in other school activities. Strickland* maintains that if handwriting is learned as a tool and is used as a tool to serve the needs felt by the pupils, children will acquire the necessary legibility and speed without the daily drill period. Of course this viewpoint implies that a high standard for handwriting in every type of written work exists and that children are helped to evaluate their handwriting in view of this standard and are helped to work individually to keep their work up to standard.

As has been stated, most of the written work in the first grade is the result of group composition. In the second grade the child begins to have needs for expressing his own ideas in writing, thus bringing in the necessity for spelling. Since correct spelling is seldom called for except when one has something to write, spelling instruction in schools has focused upon those words that are used most frequently in children's writing and that are also frequently used in the writing of adults. Research has shown that such a list consists of about 4,000 words. Most series of spelling textbooks today are built around a list of between 3,500 and 4,200 words.

The teaching of spelling in schools is carried forward largely through two channels. One of these is a plan of direct instruction involving the use of a graded series of spelling texts. The school schedule usually provides a daily period of ten to twenty minutes devoted to the teaching of spelling. The second approach to spelling instruction is continuous attention to correct spelling in all the written work pupils prepare in any and all of the subject fields; this method involves teaching the correct spelling of new terms as they arise in all subject fields, and teaching the correct spelling of new words occurring in vocabulary-development exercises. In recent years some schools have been experimenting with the second of these approaches in an effort to determine whether spelling can be taught satisfactorily without the formal methods built around spelling textbooks.

Thus the program of written composition is based upon helping children become proficient in skills for which they themselves can see a need in meeting many of the situations in their daily lives. An exami-

*Ruth G. Strickland, *The Language Arts in the Elementary School* (Boston: D. C. Heath, & Co., 1951), p. 218.

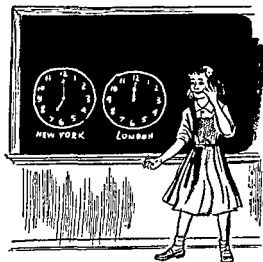
nation of these situations calling for written expression in school will reveal the fact that these same situations also exist in life outside of school; hence, if the child does a good job of acquiring proficiency in these skills in school, he should be able to carry on life activities involving the use of written expression.

Number

The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating. Although instruction in arithmetic appeared in some schools prior to 1790, arithmetic did not become common in the subject offering of elementary schools until after 1800. In modern society nearly every phase of living has its quantitative aspects, so that anyone who does not have at least some acquaintance with numbers and some skill in the fundamental operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division will encounter many obstacles and embarrassments. Self-realization in modern society thus requires certain proficiencies in arithmetic, and elementary schools in this country have assumed the responsibility for helping children acquire them.

Brueckner and Grossnickle set forth the modern objectives of arithmetic in the following terms.

The two primary objectives of the modern arithmetic program are (1) to develop in the learner the ability to perform the various number opera-



"I wonder if we can find out what time it is on Mars right now?"

tions skilfully and with understanding, and (2) to provide a rich variety of experiences which will assure the ability of the pupil to apply quantitative procedures effectively in social situations in life outside the school.¹⁰

Schools of today may be classified in several ways with reference to the manner in which the teaching of arithmetic is handled. Some school systems, mostly in the larger cities, have developed their own courses of study in arithmetic and their own teaching materials; textbooks in arithmetic constitute one type of teaching material, the extent of their use varying with different schools. Some schools, mostly those that do not have their own courses of study, rely heavily on the adopted texts as their basic curriculum guide. Except in so far as recently published texts in arithmetic provide the content necessary to serve the functions of arithmetic previously listed, arithmetic instruction in most schools stresses the computational function to the neglect of other functions. The majority of schools offer arithmetic as a separate subject with its own daily class period, but a few venturesome school systems have been experimenting with the integration of arithmetic with more generalized activity units. These experiments have had some successful results, so in the future one may expect an extension of the more functional approach to the teaching of arithmetic.

Sight and Hearing

The educated person is skilled in listening and observing. Traditionally the three R's (reading, writing, and arithmetic) have been referred to as the fundamental skills. Actually there are other equally important areas in which persons should have proficiency. So much of our knowledge is gained by speaking, by listening, and by observing that one needs to be skilled in them as well. Usually when laymen think about education, it does not occur to them that the field of skills is much broader than the three R's, or that the schools provide instruction in a variety of skills beyond the three R's.

No attempt will be made here to give a complete inventory of the school activities that help children to improve their proficiency in listening and observing, but enough examples will be given to illustrate the kinds of activities that have direct educational value in these two areas and to show that this aspect of education receives considerable attention by the schools. No one would claim that the schools are now doing all they could or should in these matters of listening and observing, but the added emphasis given to the topic in recent textbooks and courses of study in the field of language would seem to indicate that

¹⁰ *Making Arithmetic Meaningful*, by Leo J. Brueckner and Foster E. Grossnickle. The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, Pa. Copyright 1951 P. 2. Reprinted by permission

added emphasis is now being given to this important skill. All the situations demanding oral expression discussed earlier in this chapter also involve listening; such activities as conversing, discussing, planning sessions, reporting, as well as audience situations in assemblies and auditorium programs are utilized for their possibilities of giving experience in listening.¹¹ Listening to musical selections, to the radio, and in some cases viewing programs on television, offer additional opportunity for developing skills in listening. In recent years, however, teachers have been increasingly aware that providing opportunities for listening is not enough; specific guidance must be given if children are to become progressively more proficient in the skill of listening. Some teachers are now following suggestions such as those given by Dawson¹² in taking greater care to suit the occasion and materials to the maturity of the children, their span of attention, their interests, and their capacity to understand. Children are also guided in setting up standards for effective listening and in evaluating their own growth in listening skills.

In the realm of observing, specific instructional effort also begins in the kindergarten or first grade. In the reading preparatory work, specific steps are taken to make sure that each child sees well. Those who have inadequate vision are recommended for special examination, the fitting of glasses, or special instruction. In beginning reading instruction, the teacher is careful to place materials and to group children so that all may see easily. In the development of a sight vocabulary and in later efforts in phonics and other techniques used to promote facility in rapid recognition of words, phrases, and sentences, many devices are used to help children gain speed and accuracy.

Through the collection, mounting, and study of specimens science offers many opportunities for developing skill in observing. In geography, children are taught to read maps, charts, graphs, and pictures. Construction projects and sand-table reproductions require careful scrutiny so that the facsimiles may be as realistic as possible. Excursions of all types provide many opportunities for careful observation. Other illustrations could be added to this list, but enough have been given to indicate the nature and variety of school activities that help to realize these objectives.

Health

The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease, protects his own health and that of his dependents, and

¹¹ Althea Deery, "Interrelationships between Listening and Other Language Arts," *Elementary English*, 31 (March, 1954), 164-172.

¹² Mildred A. Dawson, *Teaching Language in the Grades* (Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1951), pp. 133-134.

works to improve the health of the community. Every phase of a child's training is conditioned by the state of his health. Susceptibility to disease, physical defects, or bad habits of living are handicaps to success in intellectual pursuits. Even if a child attains high academic achievements, they are of little value to him in life unless he also has physical vigor.

The function of the elementary school to promote the wholesome, well-rounded development of children in the direction of the purposes of education is in itself a sound basis for the school's interest in children's health. Wholesome normal physical development of each child requires an adequate, properly balanced diet; freedom from remediable defects, illness, and injurious environmental influences; a healthy organism undergoing normal physiological development; a healthy personality, which embraces mental, emotional, moral, and social health; and the gradual acquisition of habits, attitudes, and knowledge that will fortify the person's individual and community living throughout his life.

Although educational thought was slow—and schools were still slower—in recognizing the school's part in health work for children, health work has gradually evolved into an integral and extensive phase of the curriculum. School systems have now developed a variety of channels through which it is hoped the desired results will be obtained. For the elementary school, these channels now number nearly twenty, depending upon the detail with which the analysis is made. The list includes (1) daily observation by teachers, (2) control of communicable disease, (3) periodic medical and dental examinations, (4) correction of defects, (5) testing of vision and hearing, (6) training in safety concerning fire, traffic, play, buildings, and grounds, (7) physical education, (8) first aid, (9) school lunch, (10) health instruction, (11) hygienic school schedule, (12) school sanitation, (13) habit training, (14) mental hygiene, (15) school nursing and medical, dental, and psychiatric service, (16) special classes for exceptional pupils, (17) school records, and (18) community coordination regarding health and welfare services.¹¹

Schools of today differ widely in the scope and character of the health work undertaken. Some schools do practically nothing while others do a thorough job on a fairly comprehensive scale. In general, educational viewpoint and policy in the United States have now accepted the school's responsibility for its share in the protection and promotion of children's physical and mental health and well-being. The chief tasks that lie ahead are the development of adequate health

¹¹ Henry J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration* (3rd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954), p. 440.

programs in all schools and the improvement of the various phases of school health work. Health is increased in proportion as it is shared, so that all should be genuinely concerned with the improvement of individual and community health.

Recreation and Intellectual Interests

The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes, has mental resources for the use of leisure, and has an appetite for learning. The old adage "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy" has many implications for education and life in modern society. Under the stress of modern life recreation has become a first cousin to health. One who has not learned to relax, who does not direct his own life so that there are well-regulated times for recreation, and who has not become familiar with and interested in desirable and wholesome life-enriching means of recreation lacks an essential element for continued self-realization.

Elementary school programs contain many activities that have extensive values in helping children to acquire interest and proficiency in healthful, wholesome, and life-enriching forms of recreation. The school's program in physical education, if broadly conceived, makes many contributions to the development of the whole child, but its purposes and values are especially applicable to the fields of health and recreation. Play as such has a dominant role in child life and makes many contributions to the growing individual. Biologically the human organism is dependent upon vigorous muscular activity for its growth and development. Certain amounts of daily physical activity encourage the proper functioning of the various organic systems, such as the digestive system. Bodily activity encourages better body tone, a sharper appetite, and thus has a relation to food intake and body growth. Skill in physical activities aids children in attaining or maintaining status among their peers and thus contributes to social adjustment and emotional development. Games and skills learned in school may be put to wholesome use during out-of-school leisure hours.

The following statement of the objectives of physical education by the American Association of School Administrators reveals the emphasis placed upon leisure-time activities through the physical-education program. The objectives are

1. To develop skills and coordinations which will enable the individual to use his body with ease and efficiency and to participate with satisfaction in a wide variety of physical activities;
2. To aid in the development of strength, endurance, and organic power;

3. To prevent fatigue by furnishing a method of relaxation from more formal types of education;
4. To contribute to personality integration and social adaptability.¹⁴

Dramatizations in connection with classroom activities, assembly or auditorium programs, and the preparation of programs for parents or other adult groups provide the beginnings that later lead many persons to choose local drama or play-production groups as recreation. In many schools the children are encouraged to plan the dramatizations or programs they later will practice and present. In some schools children are motivated to write *original plays, verse, or other pieces* to be read; these creative pupil productions are then used in programs that the children put on. The broad category of dramatization thus has many values in developing leisure-time pursuits, in giving pupils the opportunity to acquire the proficiencies needed for skill in and enjoyment of dramatic activities, and in stimulating their creative interests and intellectual talents.

Children's social activities encouraged by the school—the celebration of the birthdays of class members, Christmas or Thanksgiving or Halloween parties, parties to which another class is invited, and parties or teas that children plan for their mothers—provide the learning situations out of which grow ease and confidence in social relations and interest in group social activities, which are very satisfying in later life. Learning how to plan different kinds of parties or other group social activities is an important factor in the success and satisfaction one has in later life in utilizing group social activities as a worth-while form of recreation.

Most elementary schools today sponsor one or more special-interest clubs as an integral part of the school program.¹⁵ Membership in them is voluntary and is usually confined to those pupils who have special interest and talent in the field represented by each club. Clubs encourage children to explore special interests and thereby give added motivation to keener and deeper intellectual pursuits adapted to the interest of individuals.

Attendance at motion-picture theaters makes heavy inroads on children's and adults' leisure time. It is an activity that can have much recreational and educational value if appropriate motion pictures are

¹⁴ *Health in Schools*, Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators (rev. ed.; Washington: American Association of School Administrators, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1951). Reprinted by permission.

¹⁵ Henry J. Otto, *Organizational and Administrative Practices in Elementary Schools in the United States*, The University of Texas Publications No. 4544 (Austin, Tex.: The University of Texas, 1945), pp. 60-61.

chosen, but it is only within recent years that schools have developed instructional activities specifically designed to assist children in getting the most out of a picture and in choosing with discrimination the pictures they see.

The extent to which listening to the radio and viewing television are used as leisure-time activities by children was presented in earlier chapters. In recent years, as more schools have been equipped with radio receiving sets, radio broadcasts are increasingly used in classroom teaching. Several types of experiences and training become possible in the school use of radio broadcasts. Perhaps the first value that comes to mind is the enrichment of content resulting from accessibility to materials otherwise not available in the typical school. There are also the training in listening and the gradual acquisition of a frame of values, which make children increasingly sensitive to good and poor radio programs. The school thus directly helps children to use radio listening as a leisure-time activity in the most profitable manner.

In a few instances where television sets are available in schools, experiences similar to those obtained through the use of the radio are possible. Experts who have studied this problem believe that efficient use of television in the classroom will definitely help guide out-of-school viewing and that other means of guidance such as discussions of programs viewed at home and setting up standards for evaluating such programs are definitely a part of the school program of today.¹⁶

Most schools today include music as one of the areas of the curriculum. Music appreciation, group singing, and at least some familiarity with musical instruments are common elements of the program. If the music program has accomplished its chief aim of enabling children to enjoy music to the fullest extent, many children will turn to music as one of the forms of recreation that can add enjoyment to their lives, through listening to music on the radio or on records, through singing, through playing on instruments, and in some cases, through creative expression.

Other forms of creativity initiated in the school program may lead to leisure-time activities. Closely allied to music are painting, drawing, and handicraft activities. Instruction in these fields provides children with skills and interests that are called into use in out-of-school activities.

Although few people develop creative writing to the level of commercial value, research has shown that many children have creative talent in some degree. The schools encourage pupil creativity in a

¹⁶ *Children and TV*, Bulletin No. 93 (Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1954), pp. 18-19.

variety of ways. Writing of stories, poems, and plays has been encouraged by some teachers at all grade levels for many years. Providing for such creative experiences as have been described can contribute much toward the objective of intellectual interests by giving mental resources for the use of leisure.

Another recreational pursuit and one that in turn is also a response to intellectual interests and helps encourage them is leisure-time reading. Elementary schools of today stimulate leisure-time reading in many ways. School libraries or classroom libraries make many books accessible. The teacher who wants to encourage such reading sees that there are books available on the interest level of her children, yet covering a wide range of reading ability so that all her children can find books that they are interested in reading and can read without too much difficulty. In addition to providing books, the teacher also provides time for this recreational reading and a time for sharing books with others, hoping that this enjoyment of books in school will stimulate the reading of books out of school. In Chapter 1 several examples were given of different ways in which teachers provided both books and opportunities for enjoying them.

Methods used in the classroom can contribute to the development of intellectual interests. Many schools today have moved a long distance away from sole reliance upon the "daily assignment from the text" as the chief form of classroom procedure to the so-called larger units and problem-solving procedures. The latter method encourages the pupils to participate in deciding the important issues to be studied, in planning classroom procedures for dealing with the problem and its related issues, in determining topics for individual and group research and reporting to the class, and in evaluating their efforts. Such procedures place a high premium upon the initiative and intellectual curiosity of children, thus helping them to acquire habits of intellectual effort and a continuing interest in genuine intellectual pursuits. The very method of classroom procedure not only creates intellectual curiosity and an appetite for learning but provides the mental resources for the use of leisure.

The problem-solving procedures are utilized by many schools in activity curriculums or in such subject fields as social studies and science. Inasmuch as this type of classroom method encourages children to search and read widely in varied sources of material, to use the library, and to acquire study skills that are most useful in serving their purposes, the study activities of children bring them in contact with a wide variety of reading materials and thus stimulate reading interests that can be followed during out-of-school leisure hours.

Another field that provides numerous opportunities for stimulating intellectual interests and an appetite for learning is that of science. In

this field children are led to find the answers to their many questions concerning the universe in which they live.

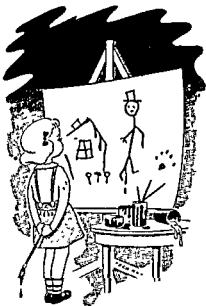
Esthetic Interests

The educated person appreciates beauty. One of the characteristics that distinguishes the cultured person from the uncultured is the fact that beauty in its many forms has come into his life. Fullness and enrichment of life come primarily to those whose desires and emotions have become sensitized to the finer qualities of man living in his universe. Beauties in life are legion: they may permeate and transcend every thought and act and every contact man makes with the material things about him and the contacts he makes with other persons. The beauty of delicate colorings in fine paintings, the balanced masses of sculpture, the strength and lightness of noble architecture, and the rhythm, harmony, and melody of poetry, music, and the dance should be the rightful heritage of every child.

The broad area of art can contribute much to the development of human values.³⁷ The scope of art in American life is portrayed well by

the chapter titles which comprise Section I of the Fortieth Yearbook (1941) of the National Society for the Study of Education. These headings are "City Planning," "Public Architecture," "The Domestic Setting Today," "Landscape Design," "Flower Arrangement," "The Handicrafts," "Art in Industry," "Clothing and Personal Adornment," "Art in Commerce," "Art in Printing and Publishing," "The American Theater, Past and Present," "Puppets, Marionettes, and Shadow Plays," "The Motion Picture," "Television," "Dancing," "Photography," "The Graphic Arts," "Sculpture," and "Painting."

Art education has found an extensive place in elementary school curriculums. In many schools a period is set aside each day or in some instances every other day for



³⁷ *Art and Human Values*, Third Yearbook (Kutztown, Pa.: National Art Education Association, 1953).

art. Other schools, particularly in the primary grades, follow the pattern suggested in the Cincinnati course of study.

Since art permeates the entire school program there need be no daily set period for art instruction, but children should have ample time every day to work with art materials. Part of the time will be spent in free expression of what the child feels and thinks; another part may be spent in group work for class purposes.¹⁸

Emphasis in the art program is now being placed upon an understanding of the relation between creative expression and mental and emotional growth of the child. This viewpoint is exemplified in the Cincinnati course of study in which teachers are urged to evaluate creative expression of children as indicators of their stages of maturity and to encourage growth expected at the maturity level without suppressing the creative urge.¹⁹ This suggestion implies that teachers will have a thorough understanding of the levels of emotional and mental development as well as the developmental stages in creative expression.

In the Boston course of study specific suggestions are given for integrating art with units in the social studies. The theme for creative expression in grade one centers around home and family; in grade two these centers are enlarged to include friends in the neighborhood; and in grade three, new acquaintances and workers in every walk of life in the community are included.²⁰

Music, like art, has found an extensive place in elementary school programs. The nature of present practices in music education, including the integration of music with other phases of elementary school education, can be seen most clearly by referring to representative courses of study. The importance attached to the music program in the schools of Dallas is revealed in a series of bulletins. An examination of the Table of Contents of one of these bulletins, *Growth through Music*, gives an overview of the entire program.

- Dallas Program of Music Education
- Child Growth through Musical Learnings
- Aspects of the Music Curriculum
 - The Singing Program
 - The Listening Program
 - Rhythmic Movement
 - Playing Instruments
 - Creative Experiences

¹⁸ *New Primary Manual: A Teacher's Guide*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 300 (Cincinnati: Cincinnati Public Schools, 1953), p. 451.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 450.

²⁰ *Art Education: Grades I, II, and III*, School Document No. 2 (Boston: Boston Public Schools, 1951), p. 7.

The Resource Type of Teaching
 An Approach to Evaluation
 Instructions on Departmental Routine²¹

Another of these bulletins²² gives the expected outcomes by grades and a chart giving illustrations of how the music curriculum comes into being by giving examples at the various grade levels of the source or demand for a particular music activity. This bulletin also explains the selection of material, appropriate performance activities, possible interrelations or correlations, and the outcomes to be expected. A third bulletin, *Know Your Symphony*,²³ gives specific help to the teacher for guiding the students' enjoyment and appreciation of the youth concerts provided by the Dallas Symphony Orchestra and widely attended by school children of Dallas. These concerts are related closely to the instrumental program of the schools, for many of the children who are in the instrumental classes in the elementary schools play with the symphony orchestra in these youth concerts.

Other areas of the curriculum also make contributions to esthetic interests. The development of esthetic interests in literature is usually fostered through reading and library programs; interest in drama is encouraged through the various types of dramatizations and auditorium activities; while interest in the dance and rhythms is sought through physical education.

No doubt the reader is already aware of the fact that the acquisition and development of esthetic interests have a direct bearing upon recreation and the wholesome use of leisure time as well as the general enrichment of living.

Character

The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life. Character is defined in the dictionary as the sum of traits and habits that make up a person's mental and moral being. A democratic society, which places a high premium upon individual freedom and responsibility, makes great demands upon its members for honesty, truthfulness, integrity, loyalty, industry, cooperation, and ethical and moral relations. Character is not a generalized trait that one has or does not have or that one may possess in some definable degree. Character traits or habits operate in highly specialized ways in different types of situations: a

²¹ *Growth through Music: A Teaching Guide for Grades I-XII* (Dallas, Tex.: Dallas Independent School District, 1952).

²² *Growth through Music: A Curriculum Guide for Grades I-XII* (Dallas, Tex.: Dallas Independent School District, 1952).

²³ *Know Your Symphony: A Resource Unit in Music for Grades I-XII* (Dallas, Tex.: Dallas Independent School District, 1952)

person may not steal from the collection box in church but may not hesitate to keep surplus change that the grocery clerk inadvertently gave him after the last purchase. Character in the general sense is a complex summation of a great variety of traits and habits which operate differently in different situations, and one can speak of character in general only when an individual's customary performance in many types of situations is in accord with *or out of accord with* generally accepted standards of society.

Performance in life situations in harmony with desirable and accepted standards is learned much as other habits and skills are learned, and when the *learning as well as the learner have reached the stage* at which understanding and generalization are possible, general principles of conduct evolve as guideposts to living. Gradually, as one matures, these principles of conduct merge into what some people call a *philosophy of life*.

Educational effort to help children acquire desirable modes of moral conduct in all kinds of life situations, evolve appropriate principles of conduct, and achieve a wholesome philosophy of life consistent with the ideals and demands of a democratic society is carried forward by many agencies. Prominent among these are the home, the church, the school, and youth organizations. Religious education is a definite part of this broad objective, but the public schools refrain from direct or formal instruction of the doctrines of any particular creed; such instruction is left to the home and the church.

The place of religion in public school programs has been a controversial issue for many generations. Disagreement, as well as legal controversy, exists over such practices as the use of prayer at the opening or closing of the school day, giving thanks at mealtime, reading selections from the Old Testament without comment, released time for attendance at religious instruction during school hours, and the use of public school buildings by church groups. A recent decision by the Supreme Court of the United States *reaffirms the Constitutional principles* of separation of church and state. Many practices that have crept into public school programs will have to be re-examined and revised in the light of clearer interpretations of the relations between religion and public schooling and between religion and the tenets of democracy.

The basic beliefs concerning religious freedom and the relations of church and state are well stated in the following quotation from a report of the Educational Policies Commission.

The public schools faithfully reflect the religious diversity and tolerance which have helped to make our nation strong. In view of differing religious faiths, a common education consistent with the American concept of freedom of religion must be based, not on the inculcation of any religious

creed, but rather on a decent respect for all religious opinions. Such an education must be derived, not from some synthetic patchwork of many religious views, but rather from the moral and spiritual values which are shared by the members of all religious faiths. Such education has profound religious significance. The teaching of moral and spiritual values in the public schools of the United States must be done without endangering religious freedom and without circumventing the policy of separation of Church and state.²⁴

Some schools have separate daily periods set aside for lessons in character, but most schools approach character education indirectly through school activities. In kindergarten and primary grades children learn to be kind to animals and to each other, to be courteous, to take turns in the use of materials and in the activities, to share with others, to be truthful, to be honest in the use of their own and others' books, pencils, money, and many other items. Instructional units dealing with home and family endeavor to instill in children a love for their parents and brothers and sisters, an appreciation for what their parents do for them, and an attitude of helpfulness in the home. The books the children read and the stories read or told by the teachers contain many simple incidents in which the appropriate modes of moral and ethical conduct are easily discerned by the children. On the playground, in the lunchroom, and in dozens of other school situations there are numerous daily opportunities for practicing good conduct and for instruction about desirable behavior.

In the intermediate and upper grades there is a continuation of the situations, opportunities, and emphases previously enumerated for the primary grades. In addition, new avenues for character education appear in the study of literature, history, biography, science, and civics or citizenship. In the category of co-curricular activities special mention should be made of the student council, the safety patrol, assembly programs, and athletic activities. Throughout these many activities most teachers are alert to desirable performance and teaching opportunities so that life at school may be at its best. The necessity of discipline grows largely out of the efforts of teachers to have children learn and live by accepted standards of moral and ethical conduct. If it were not for infringements of accepted modes of conduct, teachers would have few disciplinary problems. Mention should also be made of the increasing trend to have pupils participate in planning classroom activities, in developing (with teacher guidance) the rules of procedures for dealing with such matters as conduct on the playground, the use of

²⁴ *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1951), p. 6. Reprinted by permission.

the library, the use of lavatories, traffic in the halls, and classroom management. In many schools committees of pupils assist in dealing with disciplinary problems.

Attention is also being given to mental hygiene. Mental health has come to be recognized as an important factor in everyone's life. A person is hardly capable of living in harmony with other people unless he has learned to live happily with himself. Schools of today are much concerned with the social and personal adjustment of children. Wholesome social adjustment and the development of a well-integrated personality are very real objectives in today's schools.

Anyone who is familiar with elementary school programs knows that the procedures and activities used by the schools to promote character education are legion. It is the authors' opinion that teachers spend more time and energy on character education than on any other phase of the elementary school program.

Contributions of Other Groups of Objectives

Individual development and self-realization are promoted by the schools through the activities whose major contributions are toward the objectives of human relations, civic responsibility, and vocational efficiency as well as through the activities whose major values are in the realm of self-realization. The skills that one acquires and that help one to live amicably with one's neighbors and associates, to participate effectively in committee activities, and to lead or to follow in other group situations directly contribute to one's chances of self-realization. A person may be very talented and capable, but he is prevented from applying his talent if his skill in human relations is such that no one wants to have him around.

Proficiency in a vocational pursuit and in civic affairs likewise discloses possibilities for the achievement of self-realization. Unless one has acquired proficiency in some vocation that enables him to be an independent, self-supporting citizen, he has little chance to realize a rich and satisfying life. Individual development and competence in human relations are just as necessary for vocational and civic proficiency. It is obvious, therefore, that all four of these groups of objectives are *interdependent*. A person must achieve some degree of success in all four areas if he is to be a happy, independent, responsible, self-supporting individual. Through appropriate education different persons will reach different stages or degrees of development along the various lines, depending upon ability, effort, and opportunity; but each individual should be encouraged to optimum development in accordance with

ability, so that he may find a happy and useful life and will be welcomed by society for whatever role he can and wishes to occupy.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the meaning of individual development and self-realization, the importance of educating for self-realization, and the fundamental interdependence of self-realization and social welfare. The interdependence and interlocking relation of the four groups of objectives of education were also described. The major portion of the chapter dealt with descriptions of activities used by elementary schools in helping children to reach these objectives. The major purposes in presenting these descriptions were (a) to help the reader identify those aspects of elementary school programs whose major educational values lie in the realm of self-realization, (b) to help him visualize more clearly the relation between school activities and the purposes of education, and (c) to impress upon him the fact that elementary schools sponsor a *large number* of activities that contribute directly toward the objectives of self-realization.

The following major ideas were developed in this chapter.

1. Individual development is basic to self-realization.
2. Each child should be helped to a degree of individual development consistent with his ability.
3. Self-realization is dependent upon proficiency in human relations, in a vocational pursuit, and in civic affairs as well as upon individual development.
4. The welfare of society depends upon the self-realization of individuals.
5. The objective of individual development is self-realization within the framework of society's welfare.
6. Elementary school programs contain *many* activities that make major contributions toward self-realization.
7. All school activities should make important contributions toward children's attainment of the purposes of education.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Adams, Fay. *Educating America's Children* (2d ed.). New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954. Part IV, "The Basic Skills," Part V, "The Fine Arts."
2. Caswell, Hollis L., and A. Wellesley Foshay. *Education in the Elementary School* (2d ed.). New York. American Book Co., 1950. Chap. 8, "Developing Creative Interests and Abilities," Chap. 9, "Developing Command of Skills."

3. *The Three R's in the Elementary School*. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1952.

Suggested Student Activities

1. Visit an elementary school and note the various school activities that seem likely to help children to acquire proficiency in the objectives of self-realization. Make a special note of those school activities that seem to be valuable for helping develop more than one of these objectives. Be sure to be alert to happenings in school other than organized classroom teachings, such as traffic in the halls, classroom management, and so forth.

2. Skim through the narratives in Chapter 1, noting examples of opportunities provided for the achieving of the objectives of self-realization.

3. View the film *The Elementary School*, Part II (16 mm., sound, black and white or color, 20 minutes, Richmond: The Virginia Department of Education, 1953). Note opportunities provided in this film for achieving the objectives of self-realization.



Educating for Satisfying Human Relations

"Not being able to work well with people" is the reason given probably more often than any other for lack of success. A few moment's reflection will convince one that proficiency in human relations is necessary for happiness, for self-realization, for vocational success, and for effective civic participation. Anyone who has not learned to get along with his family, his neighbors, and other associates by methods that are mutually pleasing and satisfying to himself and to others is indeed a most unfortunate person.

Education for satisfying human relations is a phase of elementary education that has not always received adequate emphasis. Just as in the acquisition of any other attitude or skill, the child must learn by having practice in understanding and getting along with others. Although teachers have given, and will continue to give, attention to courtesy, consideration for others, and cooperation in daily living in the school, they have not had much help in the way of courses of study, teaching guides, professional articles and books, and library books and textbooks. The situation has changed in recent years, however. Perhaps no field at present occupies more space in the literature.¹ Almost every course of study contains one or more units on how people work together, or the entire course may be organized around certain aspects of human relations. The latest *Education Index* devotes many pages to

¹ B. Everard Blanchard, "Recent Investigations of Social Learning," *Journal of Educational Research*, 43 (March, 1950), 507-515.

the listing of articles and other publications dealing with the subject. Children's books, especially current library books, even treat in more or less "disguised" form the great variety of problems arising in connection with living with people. "The school beyond all else must be considered as a place of educating in the art and science of being a person, the practice of human relations," which is the "fourth R."²

The main reason why education for satisfying human relations is important lies in the fact that people are essentially social beings: man was not made to live alone but rather to live in the company of others. In fact, the social needs of people are as basic as their need for air, food, clothing, and shelter. Prescott has provided a clear exposition of the nature of social needs.

The social needs of the individual grow out of the fact that life must be lived in contact with other people. Only by establishing and maintaining satisfactory relationships with persons, organizations, and institutions can the individual obtain optimum conditions for continuing his physical life, for establishing and maintaining a family of his own, and for realizing the various potentialities of his own personality. Certain conditions loom so large in his task that they amount to basic needs for his developing personality.

AFFECTION. A fundamental need is to live in a relationship of affection or love with some one or several other human beings. Only in such a manner can the individual have an unassailable feeling of his own value. The need appears in very young children and continues throughout life. It is by no means guaranteed to everyone. A student who questioned a large number of first-grade children as to the persons who really loved them reports one child who was greatly upset by the question but who finally was able to reply, "Only God!" Some psychiatrists term this need for affection a need for security and it is quite true that the absence of love in a child's life is marked by the strongest feelings of insecurity.

BELONGING. Normal, wholesome personality development in the social world demands that the child expand the scope of his activities into successively wider social groupings. His functioning in these groupings must be of the effective sort which will give him the feeling of "belonging" in these groups. He must feel that he is important in these groupings, that he is well thought of, that he is valued. The social valuation that is the basis for this sense of belonging possibly arises from what the individual is, from the contributions which he makes to the various groupings. The achievement of maturity requires that the child accomplish the steady widening of this belonging from the family to play groups, to the school class, to clubs, and so on. Without this sense of increasing belonging the "security" of the individual

² Reprinted by permission of the publisher. Abelson-Schuman, Publishers, Inc., from *On Being Human*, by Ashley Montagu. Copyright 1950, p. 110.

is greatly menaced, and his valuation of himself suffers to the point of involving him in very serious and continuing unpleasant emotions. Resulting attempts to relieve this tension, to demonstrate personal importance, may involve the individual in all sorts of antisocial or regressive behavior entirely inimical to ordered personality development.

LIKENESS TO OTHERS. A significant measuring rod by which an individual living in the company of others may evaluate himself is his likeness to others. The possession of characteristics which sharply differentiate a person from others, unless it be in a manner greatly applauded by society, is a handicap and a hazard. Even great gifts of a valued sort may distort and warp the personality if they interfere with the feeling of being one of the great human family like unto all others in appearance, capacity, and worth. Differences in behavior which have arisen normally from differences in temperament, intelligence, or experience may still give rise to feelings of guilt, or of set-apartness, which will make the individual shy, uneasy, and ineffective in his social behavior. All of us, then, seem to need to feel that in essential matters we are like other human beings—and almost any noticeable difference may seem an essential one to an individual if it receives unfavorable attention from others. This is particularly true in childhood and adolescence when the individual is striving to expand his belonging into large, socially significant circles.³

Proficiency in human relations is therefore important in achieving self-realization, in satisfying one's social needs, in discharging one's civic responsibilities, and in achieving success in one's vocational pursuits. Education for satisfying human relations is therefore just as important as any other phase of a child's upbringing. The content of the area of human relations, if one may speak of it as having content, is very broad. There are many attitudes one must develop in order that one may be predisposed toward the kind of conduct that will result in satisfying relations with other people. One must have a fundamental liking for other people. One must have a conviction that others, too, are good and mean well. One must have a spirit of helpfulness and a desire for the welfare of others. One must have a desire to refrain from doing things that might be harmful to others. One must become tolerant of ideas, opinions, and practices of others that are different from our own. The list could be extended, but enough examples have been given to illustrate the point that a large number and variety of attitudes must be acquired in order to equip the individual with the psychological framework in terms of which he may proceed successfully in his social relations.

Proficiency in human relations also demands that the individual be

³Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 116-118. Reprinted by permission.

imbued with certain ideals, which serve as goals or guideposts for his conduct. He must have become convinced that honesty in all matters is imperative in order to be honest in the thousands of life situations requiring a decision regarding honesty. He must be imbued with the ideal that truthfulness is fundamental in order to have the sustaining moral influence of this standard in the many life situations in which he must decide whether to be truthful or otherwise. In similar fashion he must believe in the merit of justice to all persons and peoples in order that justice may be encouraged, permitted, or administered in life situations. More far reaching than any of the ideals so far named is the ideal of universal brotherhood of mankind and the ideal of universal happiness and well-being of all peoples of the earth. Without a fundamental conviction that he must strive to improve man's earthly lot the individual does not have the most important guide for his activities of daily living.

But attitudes and ideals are not enough to ensure proficiency in human relations. *The individual must also have the skills or techniques* whereby he can successfully relate himself to other persons in ways that are mutually pleasing and satisfying. The realm of social skills is very broad, and only a few illustrations will be given to develop the idea. Early in life children are taught to say "please" and "thank you." They are taught to "take turns," to avoid bumping into people, to refrain from grabbing things from others, and to eat slowly and neatly at the table. Later on children learn how to introduce strangers to each other, how to respond when introduced to a stranger, how to ask for something that is wanted, how to help someone who needs assistance, how to serve as chairman of a committee, and how to conduct themselves in large audiences. Courtesy in its appropriate forms in thousands of life situations consists of social skills that make for happy social relations.

A point the reader should establish clearly in his mind is that home and school have always emphasized education for satisfying human relations, but elementary schools, generally speaking, have not dealt with this phase of education through separately organized courses. During the 1930's some schools organized separate courses in character education, which embodied some of the elements in the area of human relations, but those courses have been abandoned in most of the schools that had them and instruction in character education has again been integrated with other subjects and activities. The field of human relations is thus a good example of an important phase of children's education that is taught both indirectly and directly in connection with or as a part of any or all of the subjects and the various activities of the

school. The chief direct instructional approach consists of selected units in such subjects as reading and social studies.

The remainder of this chapter will describe more fully the scope of education for satisfying human relations and the means commonly used by schools to promote this phase of children's education.

Respect for Humanity

The educated person puts human relationships first. The Educational Policies Commission introduced the discussion on this point with the following paragraph.

The impact of education on a developing personality should lead that person to place human welfare at the very summit of his scale of values. He should judge old traditions and new inventions by the same high and single standard. Whatever has an evil effect on human beings and their relations to each other is to be disapproved, regardless of the comfort, luxury, or economic gain it may bring. Too often, modern standards ignore the intangible effects of scientific and social inventions on human relationships. We tend to approve anything if only it adds in some small particular to our ease and comfort. The schools have a definite responsibility for developing a sense of values which exalts men above money or machinery.⁴

Respect for all humanity is one of the pillars upon which a peaceful, democratic world society must be built. Schools endeavor to establish this ideal in the minds of children and to create in them a state of mental and emotional readiness to react to situations, persons, or things in a manner that is harmonious with that ideal. Let us now examine a few courses of study to see what they have to say that is pertinent to this issue. The state course of study for the elementary schools in Utah includes the following quotation as a portion of the discussion on the objectives of the elementary school and their implications.

The ultimate purpose of education in America is to provide for each individual the maximum opportunity for the development of himself as a personality in a democratic society; that he may become increasingly aware of and appreciative of his heritage to the end that he recognizes its possibilities and limitations and is capable of becoming a contributor to its conservation, transmission, and improvement. The child's development is a twenty-four hour a day process. Social attitudes (desirable and undesirable), habits, and understandings are constantly being formed in all life situations.

⁴ *Policies for Education in American Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1946), p. 213. Reprinted by permission.

The activities of the school, the home, and the community should cooperatively contribute to the growth of each child, continuously carrying his living to richer and higher levels. The school cannot accomplish this objective alone. It can, however, provide an environment that will stimulate rich living within the school, and furnish leadership for active cooperation to further school, community, and home planning that will improve community life for children.

To accomplish this purpose the following factors must be considered:

1. The School Should Be Concerned with the Worth of the Individual Personality.

We cannot think in terms of democracy without being actively concerned with the worth of personality. Active concern implies that the school will take as its obligation the task of providing for the children much practice in working out human relationships with other children and with adults to the end that the individual will be given full opportunity for expression, along with a growing sense of obligation to others.

2. The School Should Aid in Cooperative Living.

The school should foster personal and social adjustment to the end that desirable human relations may exist between groups with different social and civic background. We should guide each child so that he will develop an appreciation of others, be tolerant in thought and action, and be considerate of others' rights, beliefs, and actions. We need to emphasize motives for behavior as well as desirable patterns for behavior so that responses will be truly spiritual, ethical, and civic in nature.³

The Idaho state course of study, in discussing the guidance functions of the teacher, provides the following outline of types of guidance that the teacher should give in an effort to improve personal conduct and social relations.

A. Improving Personal Conduct

1. Behavior

The child should feel some responsibility to the group; his realization that misbehavior is not admirable is a potent influence for good.

2. Sportsmanship

Because only one side can win in a contest, the child should be a good loser; he should learn to tolerate frustration because in life, no matter how much he tries, he will sometimes lose.

3. Level of aspiration

Fear is a deterrent with which no child should be handicapped. The teacher should help the child determine a level of aspiration which is reasonable for him—sufficiently difficult to challenge but easy

³ *A Teaching Guide for the Elementary Schools of Utah* (Salt Lake City, Utah: Utah State Department of Public Instruction, 1941), p. 11. Reprinted by permission.

enough to insure success. His aim can be raised gradually, but it should be gauged to permit the child to have a feeling of satisfaction with his performance.

4. Adjusted personality

a. A "sour grapes attitude" is a compensating reaction which the child should avoid; he should learn to face reality.

b. Daydreaming

By imagining that he is a conquering hero or a persecuted victim, a child tries to get even with the world; carried to extremes, that habit may result in a "split personality." It is much better to have a reasonable goal and strive to reach it.

c. Projection

Blaming someone else for his own weakness is a childish tendency which the teacher should oppose. A pupil often thinks he fails because someone dislikes him, treats him unfairly, or pets someone else. By means of a private conference, the teacher usually can improve the child's point-of-view.

d. Fear

Every child needs a sense of security which his teacher should help to develop. A timid pupil is a problem to the teacher, perhaps more of a problem than the too-aggressive pupil.

e. Control of temper

Within reason, demonstrations of anger should be avoided. The harmful effect on health and efficiency can be emphasized.

f. Recreation (is discussed as physical education)

g. Hobbies

- (1) Recreational reading
- (2) Collecting stamps, coins, etc.
- (3) Development of musical skill
- (4) Appreciation of the beautiful
- (5) Creative expression

B. Improving Social Relationships

1. Friendliness

Children can discuss how they could win friends if they moved to a strange school, and then decide how they can help a pupil moving to their school.

2. Social traits

Members of the class can list the characteristics of people they like, and then rate themselves accordingly. Probably, courtesy, friendliness and personal appearance will be important factors in their judgment.

3. Conversation (is discussed as language)

4. Parties at school

Every effort should be made to avoid class distinction. Gifts should be exchanged only occasionally; then the cost should be limited. The feelings of every child should be safeguarded, always.

5. Hospitality

At school or at home, children should greet a guest courteously, offer him a chair, introduce him to other persons present, and give him his share of attention.

6. Introductions (are discussed as language)

7. Courtesy in public gatherings

It is important to be polite not only to friends but to strangers in a public gathering; children should consider it impolite to talk in a movie, push in line, "boo" at a basketball game, or giggle during an assembly program.

8. Public service

The teacher should encourage children to participate actively in school, in church organizations, and in Scouting.

9. Business meeting (is discussed as language and social studies)

10. Behavior on playground (is discussed as physical education)

11. Conduct en route from school

Often, children's quarrels on the way home from school develop into family feuds; the teacher should endeavor to reason and settle disputes fairly at school. Under no circumstances should she ignore differences, thus encouraging children to quarrel all the way home.*

Battle Creek provided its teachers with the following list of important understandings, attitudes, and appreciations that should receive emphasis in the elementary grades. The quotation reproduced below consists only of that portion of the list that is pertinent to the present discussion.

A. Understanding and Knowledge Basic to Effective Living

1. Understanding of people and human relationships
2. Understanding of the way in which people work together in a group
3. Understanding of our culture
4. Understanding of other cultures
5. Understanding of the various philosophies basic to forms of government, analyzing strengths and weaknesses of each
6. Understanding of people's relationships to natural environment
7. Understanding of way in which man changes the environment to his ends

B. Attitudes toward Human Relationships Basic to Effective Living.
(Teacher consciously builds these throughout entire school day.)

1. Respect for oneself
2. Respect for others

* *Curriculum Guide Adaptable to Elementary Schools of Idaho* (Boise, Idaho: Idaho State Department of Education, 1943), pp. xii-xiv. Reprinted by permission

3. Willingness to put the good of the group before oneself
4. Respect for individual differences (race, religion, economic status) within any group
5. Projection of attitudes listed above (1-4) into world-wide setting as basis for relationships between peoples
6. Attitudes basic to effective working together
 - a. Willingness to give one's *best* to the job
 - b. Curiosity and alertness to environment
 - c. Following through on agreed-upon responsibilities
 - d. Constantly building toward higher standards of excellence commensurate with ability of individual
 - e. Realizing that problems are ever recurring and that no problem is ever completely solved. This realization builds attitude of challenge toward problems rather than negativism or defeat.[†]

Teaching elementary school children a respect for humanity is illustrated in these excerpts from the Minnesota guide for instruction in the social studies.

FIRST GRADE—PROBLEM: SCHOOL, A GOOD PLACE FOR WORK AND PLAY

Understandings to Be Developed

One makes friends by being a friend. Successful group living calls for co-operative planning, the sharing of responsibilities, and consideration for others.

The observation of courtesies makes living happier and more gracious. Members new to a group should have the help of the other members to become acquainted with the new environment.

Etc.

Suggested Experiences and Activities

Participating in the citizenship club or student council

Practicing simple courtesies, waiting turns in conversation, at lockers, and at the fountain

Respecting the rights of others in room and halls

Showing courtesy toward visitors by greeting them and caring for their comfort

Evaluating class activities by giving and accepting criticism in a kind way

Giving recognition for the personal achievement of others

Introducing the new child to classmates and school personnel and touring the building and grounds with him

Etc.

[†] *Tentative Guide in Social Studies* (Battle Creek, Mich.: Division of Instruction, Battle Creek Public Schools, 1948), pp. 1-2. Reprinted by permission.

FIFTH GRADE—PROBLEM: HAPPY LIVING TOGETHER

Understandings to Be Developed

The family has always been the unit of society and of government.

Group living necessitates limitations on personal liberties.

Group welfare and individual security are interdependent.

In primitive times, families banded together into tribes or clans for protection against common enemies.

...

Our system of government is based on democratic principles borrowed from many older cultures.

Our concepts of human rights have evolved slowly through the ages by trial and error.

The need for laws grew out of man's own lawlessness.

...

As man's needs and wants increase, he becomes more dependent upon his neighbors.

...

Suggested Experiences and Activities

Discussing ways we might solve our family problems democratically

Sharing in the home a book dealing with an ideally democratic family situation, such a book as *Along the Banks of Plum Creek* by Laura Ingalls Wilder

Listing rights and privileges pupils would like to enjoy at school; formulating a corresponding list of duties, upon the fulfillment of which hinges the possibility of attaining those rights and privileges

Organizing a room club

...

Listing democratic principles upon which our government is based

Studying the beginning of our government and the lives of the men responsible for it

...

Discussing the responsibility of office holders to the wishes of their constituents

...

Inviting local people of foreign extraction to address the class

...

Studying the formation of the United Nations and its progress toward world unification

Planning ways of practicing brotherhood in everyday living*

The brief quotations that have been given provide at least some notion of the general problem with which teachers are asked to deal in order to develop respect for humanity. School practices and the emphasis given by teachers are much more extensive than these few quotations would indicate. The actual work with children begins with simple but nonetheless significant activities in the kindergarten and primary grades.

* Curriculum Bulletin No. 6 (St. Paul, Minn.: State of Minnesota, Department of Education, 1949), pp. 53-55, 109-112. Reprinted by permission.

Among the more common of these activities are the many incidental ways in which teachers try to get children to become sympathetic toward each other's needs. If a child finds himself without paper or crayons, others are motivated to loan or to share their materials with



"But we are supposed to share."

him. If a child gets hurt, others are encouraged to assist him. Teachers constantly admonish children to avoid injuring others in their use of paints, scissors, hammers, saws, and in games in the classroom, in the gymnasium, or on the playground. In fact, teachers plan and guide activities that will lead to safe ways of conduct and will gradually result in habits of safety for the individual and for others. These common modes of safe behavior are intellectualized through classroom discussions in which the pupils themselves are encouraged to identify the danger points and to formulate policies and procedures that will ensure maximum protection to everyone.

Developing a concern for the needs of others immediately suggests the idea of being helpful to others. On many incidental occasions teacher and pupils discuss the desirability and ways of being helpful to each other. Children are given many opportunities in school life to

practice helpfulness to others. When books, pencils, paper, or crayons are to be distributed, the teacher asks some child or a committee to make the distribution, making sure that each child in the group gets his quota. Older pupils are asked to help younger ones find their way to the lavatories, to the library, or to the lunchroom, or to assist them in crossing the street. The school safety patrol is but another illustration of an activity in which children are given an opportunity to practice helpfulness to others. Out of the many types of daily experiences, classroom discussions, and admonition by teachers ultimately grow ideals, attitudes, and proficiency in conduct.

In like fashion the school provides many opportunities for and informal lessons in courtesy and encourages children to assume responsibility for the welfare of others. The child in the lower grades learns to take turns at the drinking fountain, in the lunchroom, in speaking to the teacher, and in the various roles in games and dramatics. Learning not to crowd ahead of others in line, not to jostle others, not to interrupt when others are speaking, and not to talk so loudly as to disturb others are but a few of the forms of courtesy that children must learn and, when learned, they become taproots from which the broader aspects of respect for humanity grow.

To the myriad incidental ways utilized by the school to teach respect for humanity must be added a few of the more direct approaches. Readers on all grade levels contain stories designed to help children acquire a concern for the welfare of others. Also, there are now available numerous beautifully illustrated supplementary or library books with the same theme and purpose. In the upper elementary grades the history texts and reference books contain much material that contributes toward the development of this objective. The social studies deal with the social and economic conditions of the country being studied and the steps that were taken to improve them. The ideals that motivated leaders at different periods in the history of the United States and other countries are a part of the drama of history that has special educational value. Biographies of great leaders, which usually emphasize their subjects' concern for the welfare of humanity, are another excellent source of material.

Friendships

The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life. The social needs of children must be met through desirable and socially approved channels if wholesome personality development is to result. The satisfactory meeting of children's social needs requires that each child have at least some other children and some adults whom he recog-

nizes as his genuine friends, as persons who believe in him, as persons in whom he can have implicit confidence. Boys and girls value "friendship" above all other values, including such values as "excitement and recreation," "family life," "recognition," and "power and control." To have friends, then, is basic to wholesome growing up.

Most of us are so accustomed to the sincere friendship, loyalty, and support of the members of our own family and to the confidential relations we have with at least a few associates of our own age who live in the neighborhood or who attend the same school that it is almost impossible to visualize ourselves as being without any friends; yet this is what we must try to do in order to appreciate what friendships mean in the lives of people. Suppose there were no one who cared about you or about what happened to you, no one to talk to, no one who wanted to talk to you or to associate with you, no one in whom you could confide your troubles and worries, no one from whom you could seek advice, no one with whom you could exchange stories, jokes, or common experiences. The reader may think it absurd to suggest visualizing a person without friends, but the fact is that there are hundreds, probably thousands, of children who have no friends or who at least feel that they have no friends. What kind of education are such persons getting in terms of personality development, social adjustment, and satisfying human relations?

Elementary schools today contribute in many ways toward the development of friendships among children and the enjoyment of a rich, sincere, and varied social life. By encouraging friendships the schools are promoting an important phase of children's education and contributing toward the meeting of children's social needs. Many persons, including some teachers, are not aware of the basic social needs of human beings of all ages, nor do they realize that the school should strive to meet some of these needs. Reasonably adequate provision for children's social needs is a fundamental phase of a good educational program. Let us, then, identify some of the ways in which schools contribute to this important problem.

Perhaps the first point that should be mentioned is friendship between teacher and pupils. It has sometimes been said that a teacher, to be a good teacher, must have a genuine love for children. Undoubtedly that is the broad foundation upon which real friendship between teacher and pupils must be developed. But love for children is not enough; the teacher must also understand the role of friendship between teacher and pupils in the educative process. Moreover, every

* Glenn R. Hawkes, "A Study of the Personal Values of Elementary School Children," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 12 (Winter, 1952), 654-663.

teacher should know the psychology of children so thoroughly that her understanding of each child and all his behavior may lead to wise guidance and a wholesome and constructive relation between teacher and pupil. *Children must consider the teacher a friend to whom they can look for sympathy, understanding, advice, and help.* Every child should feel that the teacher believes in him, thinks well of him, knows that he has abilities, and is expecting him to do his best. A group of California teachers concerned with good human relations in the classroom listed five qualities that they wanted their pupils to believe teachers had. The first one was that they wanted their pupils to believe that they wanted to be friends with each member of the class, that they were approachable, and that they accepted each one as a person of importance and worth.¹⁰ Such friendship between teacher and pupil motivates the child and elicits the best that is in him. It is basic to wholesome discipline, effective education for satisfying human relations, and wholesome personality integration.

The very fact that a school assembles under one roof a large number of children of different ages creates a setting in which children are brought in contact with each other, have an opportunity to become acquainted with each other and to enjoy many social contacts. The intermingling of children of different ages has a variety of values, including children's social education. The smaller class group, as distinct from the total membership of the school, makes it possible for children of approximately the same age and maturity to have sufficiently extensive association so that acquaintanceships may become less superficial and friendships more intimate.

Within the setting of the school and the classroom many activities are carried on that provide for the development of friendships or cooperative enterprises by groups of children. Children's feeling of "belonging" may be thought of in several categories. There are the "room" or "all-class" activities such as birthday parties, an assembly program, a class garden, or the more formal lessons in reading, arithmetic, or other subject fields. There the child "feels" his membership in the class group. Sometimes the class is divided into teams, as on the playground, or small committees are appointed to look after specific phases of classroom management. In some classrooms children are encouraged to help each other in academic tasks. These various close classroom associations frequently lead to friendships that persist in out-of-school activities. Children will visit each other's homes or be invited to parties in the homes.

¹⁰ Kimball Wiles, *Teaching for Better Schools* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952), p. 64.

Some schools permit practices that militate against the development of friendships and a feeling of "belonging." When older children are held back in grades with much younger pupils, it is frequently difficult for the former to become integrated into the group life of the class or to develop real friendships among the members of the class. Competitive procedures that pit each child against every other one, such as competition for stars or other awards, "room" prizes based on 100 per cent participation, and a comparative marking system, can do much to prevent or destroy the opportunities for the development of a wholesome cooperative group life or mutual friendships.

Cooperation

The educated person can work and play with others. Since man cannot live alone, it is axiomatic that people must cooperate with each other in a great variety of ways and enterprises. To the casual observer it may seem as if there is a conflict between cooperation and individual development and self-realization. This point was discussed at some length in Chapter 5, where it was made clear that maximum self-realization can be achieved only within the framework of general welfare for all. Self-reliance, associated with confidence in one's own powers, is important, but self-aggrandizement should not be allowed to run to the point where it is injurious to others. There are plenty of opportunities for demonstrating individual capacity through enterprises for the good of the larger group.

Educating children for effective cooperation with others is thus an important objective of education and is one way of helping them to achieve satisfying human relations. Effective cooperation requires that a person have a favorable attitude toward the idea of cooperation, have some understanding of the desirability of and need for it, and have the essential skills. Schools, generally, have not recognized the elements of cooperative conduct or the fact that they should assume responsibility for educating children in cooperation. The following quotation from the Educational Policies Commission is pertinent here.

Democracy is a highly cooperative undertaking. It can become more effective if children learn to cooperate in school. The traditional methods of teaching, however, stress competition rather than cooperation. Marks of distinction and honors of all kinds have been showered on the pupil who surpasses his fellows. Ideally, our schools should give prizes not to the one who wins more credit for himself, but to the one who cooperates most effectively with others. We pin the badge of failure on the child who is defeated in a competition rather than on the child who has not learned to

cooperate. This not only makes the social life of the competing children unhappy and unfruitful while they are young, but it destroys those impulses towards friendly cooperative effort which might have made their lives as adults happier and more wholesome.¹¹

School practices that make important contributions toward education for cooperation may be thought of in several categories. Cooperation of one sort or another is practically forced by the fact that large numbers of persons use the same building and its facilities. All cannot pass through the doors at once when going in or out of the school building; they are forced by circumstance to adopt some plan whereby all may enter or leave. Such a plan involves taking turns: some must stand aside and wait while others pass through the doors, or some must agree to use the doors at a time when others are not using them. Cooperation is similarly required in the use of the toilet rooms, the library, the lunchroom, and the gymnasium. Cooperation by necessity may not be considered a high level of human endeavor, but it is a form of cooperation nevertheless; in the hands of skillful teachers the physical setting that exists when many persons desire to use limited facilities can be developed into one of the finest practical teaching situations. In good schools these circumstances are definitely utilized to help children acquire wholesome attitudes toward and effective skills in cooperation.

Other school situations that provide excellent settings in which to teach cooperation arise in connection with pupil participation in classroom management (passing papers, books, or crayons, taking care of plants, a fish bowl, room decorations, and so on), the student council, safety in the building and on the playground, the safety patrol, and many other activities. The essential point is that here are natural, lifelike school situations that, if properly handled, provide numerous opportunities for functional learning in the several aspects of cooperation.

Wrightstone gave the following examples of cooperative activities of individual children in a third grade.

James M.: May 21—Helped to clear off and arrange the classroom library table. May 22—Helped keep a check on the boys during trip. May 23—Brought in bundle of twelve *Child Life* magazines. May 24—Volunteered to remain and clear away materials. May 28—Loaned paints and pencil to another pupil.

Frank L.: May 21—Responded to request for quiet and went to help another

¹¹ *Policies for Education in American Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1946), p. 217. Reprinted by permission.

pupil put away materials. May 22—Helped to clean Lorraine's desk after paint had been put on it. May 23 and 24—No evidence.

Susan N.: May 21—Stayed late to help clean up. May 23—Volunteered to empty basket, wash boards and sweep to help class housekeeper. May 24—Assumed housekeeper's duties when he was absent. May 28—Brought broom in at lunch time and swept room, which was very untidy.¹²

In the instructional phases of school life special mention should be made of certain phases of reading, oral and written composition, and the social studies. Selections in readers and in library books frequently describe how the different members of a group cooperated in a common undertaking. Proficiency in oral reading serves many useful purposes in entertainments, programs, committee meetings, and other group meetings. In oral composition much emphasis is placed upon attaining proficiency in conversation and introductions, group discussion, telling stories, using the telephone, making announcements and explanations, giving directions, making speeches and reports, and meetings.¹³ In written composition special emphasis is placed upon letter writing; writing announcements, reports, and summaries; and making notes and outlines.¹⁴ All these different reading and language skills are essential equipment for those who seek proficiency in cooperative efforts with other people.

In the social studies much of the content of the books read by pupils describes activities in which the cooperative effort of people resulted in achieving the desired end. Teaching procedures in the social studies usually include a variety of ways in which pupils are motivated to work cooperatively. The reproduction of a farm, forest, or landscape, the building of a post office or grocery store in the classroom, and the writing of an original play and the preparation of costumes for it provide many opportunities for the class as a whole or the members of small committees to work together. Most courses of study recommend instructional units on "the home," "the neighborhood," "the community," "the mailman," and others, the direct purpose of which is to help children to learn about, to understand, and to appreciate the various ways in which persons in the home, the community, and the nation cooperate for desired goals. How we help each other is another common emphasis in such units. In the intermediate grades, units of a similar nature but on a more advanced level deal with such

¹² J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938), pp. 177-178. Reprinted by permission.

¹³ Mildred A. Dawson, *Teaching Language in the Grades* (Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1951), pp. 11-12.

¹⁴ Willard F. Tidyman and Marguerite Butterfield, *Teaching the Language Arts* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951), Chaps. 8, 12.

topics as "meeting community health problems" and "providing ourselves with recreation."

In recent years a larger number of schools have guided children in undertaking significant community or school improvement projects. The projects have taken many forms, but beautifying the school campus, cleaning up a vacant lot or park for safer play, engaging in community clean-up drives, and mosquito or fly control are typical. These realistic ventures provide wide opportunity for academic study as well as real practice in cooperation and a chance to acquire knowledge, desirable attitudes, and useful skills through rendering a service that is for the good of all.

Courtesy

The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior. The desirability of and need for courtesy in one's relations with other people is so obvious that it seems unnecessary to say much about it. Practice in courtesy at all times is begun in children's preschool training in the home and is continued throughout childhood and youth and even throughout adult life. Adults at all ages find themselves in new types of situations from time to time for which they strive to acquire the commonly accepted conventions of conduct. An adult who has never visited a state governor's office or the legislature in session or who has never spent a night in a Pullman car or who has never ridden in a passenger plane has new forms of conduct and courtesy to learn.

The broad area of courtesy is comprised of knowledges, attitudes, and skills. One needs to know the nature or essential elements of courteous conduct and the fact that courtesy is essential to satisfactory human relations. One needs to have an attitude that disposes one favorably toward courteous ways of dealing with other persons. Then there are dozens of specific skills that one must be able to utilize with ease. Courtesy in its many forms is something that must be learned. It is an educational objective with which schools should deal constructively.

Anyone who is at all familiar with teachers and schools knows that most teachers devote much time and energy to having children establish the habit of saying "please," "thank you," and "you're welcome." Children are taught that it is not polite to pass in front of someone unless it is unavoidable, and then to say, "Please pardon me." In similar fashion, children are taught not to bump into others, not to snatch things from each other, to hand things gently to others, and many other specific practices too numerous to mention here. The general purpose of teachers is to have children practice in school the common courtesies called for in each of the many school situations. It is hoped that through

constant practice, knowledge, attitude, and skill will develop into habits.

The school also approaches the teaching of courtesy through the more formal instructional activities. An examination of the books that children read, particularly the books used in the primary grades, reveals not only a large number of selections written in such a way that the characters in the story are practicing courteous conduct but also a number of selections that endeavor to provide direct lessons in courtesy. Many of the elements of oral and written composition previously mentioned in connection with cooperation are concerned primarily with courtesy; that is, courteous ways of writing letters, using the telephone, answering an inquiry, and so on.

One of the chief reasons why schools sponsor assembly programs, dramatics, and social parties is to provide children with opportunities to learn and to practice the common amenities. When the children of a class entertain their mothers at a tea, plan a birthday party for one of the members of the class, or entertain a class from another room, the actual event is preceded by much planning, preparation, and practicing. There are discussions on how to receive the guests, how to seat and serve the guests, how to make their departure a pleasurable experience, and so on. Frequently these discussions are followed by actual practice sessions so that proficiency and confidence may be heightened before the day of the event. These kinds of school activities provide a genuine functional laboratory for many aspects of social education.

The Home

The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution, is skilled in homemaking, and maintains democratic family relationships.

There are at least two basic reasons why a consideration of the home is pertinent to the discussion in this chapter. In the first place, the home is the pillar of stability in society and holds first place among social institutions as the creator and guardian of human values. In the United States the role of the home in the lives of people has been diminished to the point that we need to be concerned about restoring the fundamental role of the home as an institution in our culture. It is difficult to visualize what would happen to the values held dear by our people if the time should ever come when most of our citizens, young and old, would have become detached from any home and the psychological rooting that "my home is my castle" provides.

The second chief reason for discussing the home at this point is that wholesome home and family life and the functions that a home ought to perform can be attained only if the members of the family

practice cooperative, democratic human relations in family living. Unless the objectives of satisfying human relations can be achieved in family life, there will be lacking that foundational element essential for the success of the efforts exerted by other agencies, such as the school and the church. Of course some children from broken, dictatorial, or otherwise unsatisfactory homes learn to be successful in human relations, but the educational task is always more difficult and in many cases impossible unless the home actively participates in it.

Regardless of the nature of their own family experience and that of families they know, children need to learn that there is a wide range of family life in America—that parents expect different things of their children, that family routines and beliefs differ, and that families are likely to behave in ways they have learned to consider good.¹⁵

Elementary schools today give considerable attention to the home and family-living objective of education. Instruction relating to this area is carried forward through a variety of channels. One of these consists of instructional units on the home and family life, which appear at all grade levels but which are most frequently found in the primary grades. Recently prepared courses of study suggest one or more units on the home for the primary grades. For example, the Kansas state course of study gives detailed plans for a unit in the first grade entitled "How Do My Family and I Work and Play Together?" Some of the problems studied were (1) How can the members of our family help each other by doing their own daily work? (2) How does our family have fun together? (3) How can we show our love for our parents and grandparents?¹⁶ One inclusive theme stressed throughout the grades in the Denver course is "Living in the Home" and the specific unit for first grade is "How Members of the Family Make a Home." The theme is further emphasized in a second-grade unit entitled "How We Communicate at Home and School" and in an upper-grade unit "What Our Responsibilities Are in Family Living."¹⁷

In 1953 the Wisconsin School of the Air published a teachers' guide that was made available to teachers in the primary grades who were using the radio broadcasts composing the "Growing Up" series. The second unit in this series was entitled "Growing Up in Your Home," which included broadcasts based upon such topics as

¹⁵ *Elementary Curriculum in Intergroup Relations* (Washington: American Council on Education, Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools, Work in Progress Series, Hilda Taba, Director, 1950), p. 30, pp. 48-55.

¹⁶ *Studies in Social Living: A Handbook for Teachers* (Topeka, Kan.: State of Kansas Department of Education, 1952), pp. 3-4.

¹⁷ *Social Living Guide* (Denver: Denver Public Schools, 1950, pp. 65-66; 76-78, 135-137. Another example of a family unit is to be found in Henry Harap, *Social Living in the Curriculum: A Critical Study of the Core in Action in Grades One through Twelve* (Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952), pp. 64-71.

"Family Cooperation," "Family Fun," "Younger Children," and "Older Children."¹⁸

The instructional units named are but a few of the hundreds that could be listed if large numbers of state and local courses of study were analyzed. Usually, in the development of such units, much discussion centers around the duties and activities of various members of the family, how children may make themselves useful and helpful in the home, and the many services parents render children, the chief idea being to develop an appreciation of the home and the members of the family circle.

Special attention should be called to the many selections in readers and library books that contain stories about the family, the home, or its various members. Many of these stories were intended to convey to children the same values identified in the preceding paragraph. Much reading of this type of material is done by children in connection with the units on the home and the family. One must also remember that in the intermediate and upper grades children's study of the homes and home life of peoples in foreign lands helps to illuminate their understanding of their own homes and to deepen certain attitudes and appreciations.

A third type of school activity that contributes directly toward the objectives relating to the home consists of action projects in which the children strive to effect improvements in and about their own homes so that living may be more pleasant and comfortable. These projects are of many types, depending on the age of the children and the needs in the community. Such projects as picking up waste paper and tin cans in the neighborhood, cutting down weeds, planting flowers and shrubs, mosquito control, fly control, proper garbage disposal, providing screens for doors and windows, beautifying one's own room, and interior decoration are illustrative of action projects in which groups of children have engaged successfully.

In recent years action programs for community improvement have been developed on a broad scale in experimental centers in different parts of the country.¹⁹ Earlier extensive ventures were the Michigan Community Health Project sponsored by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation,²⁰ the program of the Tennessee Valley Authority,²¹ and the

¹⁸ Helen E. Frey, *Growing Up* (Madison, Wis.: Wisconsin School of the Air, 1953-1954).

¹⁹ Elsie Clapp, *Community Schools in Action* (New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1939); L. S. Tireman, *La Comunidad* (Albuquerque, N. M.: University of New Mexico Press, 1943).

²⁰ W. K. Kellogg Foundation: *The First Eleven Years* (Battle Creek, Mich.: W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 1942).

²¹ R. E. Tidwell, *Planning Improvement in Rural Living through the Schools: A Report of an Exploratory Study of County Educational Problems*, Bulletin, New Series, No. 236 (University, Ala.: University of Alabama, 1943).

program in applied economics sponsored by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.²² Some later less extensive but significant studies have also been reported.²³

A recent yearbook identifies the community school as one which . . . offers suitable educational opportunities to all age groups and which fashions learning experiences for both adults and young people out of the unsolved problems of community life . . . and emphasizes the interdependent relationship between the determination of the goals of education and the attainment of better standards of community living.²⁴

The yearbook, as well as other well-known sources,²⁵ presents various descriptive accounts of actual examples of communities in which solutions to important social and economic problems were achieved through a well-designed community-school program.

Homemaking activities and courses²⁶ constitute a fourth avenue through which schools contribute directly to the objectives related to the home. Separate courses in home economics for girls or for both boys and girls are usually found only in grades seven and eight when these grades are a part of the elementary school or in junior and senior high schools. In many schools, however, various homemaking activities are conducted from time to time at any of the grade levels. First-graders may build a miniature home and "play house" in connection with a unit on the home or they may actually prepare simple types of food for school parties. In other grades small committees may bake cookies or prepare sandwiches for a party, a picnic, or a play. Some schools encourage interested pupils to undertake simple sewing or knitting tasks as special-interest projects. Sewing and planning of apparel

²² Harold F. Clark, "Food, Clothing, and Shelter: The Sloan Experiment," *Clearing House*, 19 (March, 1945), 418-419.

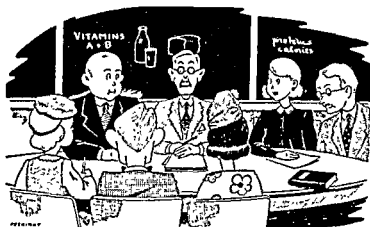
²³ *Together We Build a Community School* (Glencoe, Ill.: Glencoe Public Schools, 1944); W. K. McCharen, *Improving the Quality of Living: A Study of Community Schools in the South* (Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1947); L. S. Tireman and Mary Watson, *A Community School in a Spanish Speaking Village* (Albuquerque, N. M.: University of New Mexico Press, 1948).

²⁴ *The Community School*, The Fifty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), Part II, Preface, pp. vii-viii. Quoted by permission of the Society. See also Whitsett R. Goodson and Lawrence D. Haskew, "Community School Criteria," *Educational Leadership*, 10 (January, 1953), 249-252.

²⁵ Elsie Clapp, *The Use of Resources in Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952); Edward G. Olson, *The Modern Community School* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953).

²⁶ Imogene Farris and Mildred W. Wood, "Getting Along with Others," *Practical Home Economics*, 31 (October, 1952), 17, 48-49. *Home and Family Living* (Seattle: Seattle Public Schools, 1946); Elizabeth Stevenson, *Home and Family Life Education in the Elementary Schools* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1948).

may take place in connection with making costumes in dramatic activities. In the study of science such topics as nutrition, sanitation, lighting, and ventilation make direct contributions to improved homemaking practices. Much of the content in health education has similar values.



"We parents are pleased to know that the school lunchroom serves balanced meals."

Cooperative efforts of home and school in the interest of child welfare represent a fifth channel through which the school contributes to the objectives relating to the home. It is not uncommon for the school staff to take the initiative in calling parents' attention to the fact that a child needs medical or dental care or better nutrition. By having parents visit the school or by themselves visiting in the home, teachers are frequently able to help parents know and understand their children better and to give suggestions on ways in which parents can modify the family's methods of dealing with the child so that family relations may be improved. All such efforts that result in better care of the child in the home and better family relations tend to improve the child's attitude toward and appreciation of his home.

And finally schools contribute to education for home and family life through group efforts in parent education. Some schools have a systematic schedule of child-study clubs or parent-education classes in which groups of mothers and fathers meet regularly under the leadership of teachers, child-study specialists, or experts in parent education. These group methods have been more extensive in the nursery school and kindergarten fields, but more than a few school systems or individual teachers have carried on the group program for parents of

children in all the grades. In some cases the group is known as a "mothers' club," which meets once or twice a month under the leadership of the teacher. Such group methods have been found very effective in helping parents to a better understanding of the work of the school, the growth and development of children, and improved practices in home and family life.

A Broader View

So far this chapter has dealt with the problem of educating children for satisfying human relations from the standpoint of respect for humanity, friendships, cooperation, courtesy, and home and family life. The phase of education implied by the title of this chapter is really somewhat broader than the treatment up to this point. The topics that have already been discussed are foundational elements in any concept of human relations, but they do not encompass the whole field.

It is through his relations with other people that each person achieves self-realization. Maximum self-realization for everyone or even for the majority of people is possible only to the extent that the welfare of mankind as a whole is improved. Therefore people should be educated to strive for self-realization within the framework of the general welfare and to strive for the improvement of society as a whole. In addition, each person needs to develop attitudes and appreciations that will motivate him to types of conduct consistent with these basic concepts. The individual must also acquire techniques in human relations that will at least tend to ensure success in human relations based on these concepts.

What, then, are some of the additional phases of the problem that should be considered? In the first place, one needs to take a broader view of the pertinent attitudes. Tolerance must be seen in broad and practical ways. Children at all grade levels must learn not to disparage other children who dress differently, who speak indistinctly because of physical defects or a language handicap, who attend different churches, who live in a different part of town, who represent a different race or nationality or who hold viewpoints and opinions different from their own. The ideal of freedom of speech must come to be understood and dealt with in a practical way so that differences of opinion may arise in class and group discussions without disrupting the orderly processes of cooperative effort. Children must be helped to understand that individuals differ and that our society guarantees freedom to the individual to be different and to do things differently as long as he is not interfering with the welfare of others. Individual differences lend strength and breadth to the nature of society. Somehow children must enlarge

their concepts of tolerance to encompass the idea of "live and let live." Children must also acquire a broad positive attitude toward citizenship and the active responsibility of the individual. Democratic processes frequently move forward in terms of majority and minority viewpoints and wishes; the child must acquire an understanding of this fact and develop wholesome attitudes toward majority decisions in cases in which he finds himself in the majority group as well as when he finds himself in the minority. While the discussions are going on, he may campaign aggressively for the minority viewpoint, but once an agreement has been reached by majority vote, as a citizen of a democracy it is a matter of course for him to give active support to the majority decision. How to be loyal and still be a constant student of problems and issues requires rather fine but clear-cut distinctions in attitudes, ideals, and practices; yet these are basic to a wholesome functioning of democratic processes and satisfying human relations. Children must learn that those who disagree with them may have motives and ideals just as worthy and sincere as theirs.

Another phase of the problem that must be recognized is that fundamental concepts must be given practical application in children's daily living if these basic considerations are to be more than empty verbalisms. It is easy enough to give lip service to the idea that "thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself" but quite another matter to get a deep understanding of the real issues inherent in desirable human relations and to acquire practices consistent with the ideal. Children are brutally frank in what they say and shockingly direct in their behavior. If they see that a child has not washed his ears, they say so at once in unmistakable terms, apparently oblivious to or inconsiderate of the hurt inflicted upon the other child. A classmate who appropriates the pencils, erasers, pocketknives, or coins of others is dealt with by children in a similarly direct manner, largely because children have no knowledge or understanding of the environmental factors and pressures that are inducing the classmate to antisocial behavior.

Conflicts between children and groups of children also arise in connection with the "bully on the playground," "the gang from the other side of the railroad tracks," "the snobs from the hill," and other ethnic and social groups in the community. Our society is a "class" society. By "class" is meant two or more orders of people who are believed to be, and are accordingly ranked by the members of the community, in socially superior and inferior positions.²⁷ Sociologists frequently use the terms "upper class," "middle class," and "lower class," with subdivisions of each of these three major categories, to

²⁷ W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1941), p. 82.

other lands. Heretofore the nations with a high degree of nationalistic spirit have tended to belittle the peoples of other and less prominent nations. Everywhere there has been a great deal of just plain ignorance, misinformation, misunderstanding, and intolerance among the peoples of different countries. As long as people do not know each other, they are suspicious of each other. Suspicion and mistrust are among the factors that cause wars. If peace is to prevail among the peoples of the earth, thorough acquaintanceship, understanding, and tolerance must replace suspicion and mistrust.

One of the activities of a third grade studying the unit "This Is the World" was the making of a booklet "Peace Is Made in the Minds of People."²⁰ Other examples of units reported are "Children the World Over Are Much the Same" and "Flags and Customs of the United Nations," while one sixth grade organized a "Little United Nations."

Even among young children teachers have been able to develop an interest in, and some understanding of, the United Nations largely by means of the children's own cooperative group experience. Many problems of cooperation in international affairs can be understood in relation to their own problems of group living.²¹

The future citizens of the United States will have to shoulder an especially heavy responsibility for fostering and maintaining peace throughout the world and for giving leadership in man's world-wide struggle toward the ideal of democracy. For these reasons it is especially important that children in this country be given an opportunity to become thoroughly familiar with the people of other lands. Education for satisfying human relations is much broader than the home, the neighborhood, the school, the community, or the nation; it is as broad as the world and encompasses that type of international understanding and cooperation that will lead to world citizenship.

Education for international understanding is not something new

²⁰ *Teaching about the United Nations in the Schools and Colleges of the United States in 1950 and 1951* (Washington: Department of State, 1952).

²¹ *Education for International Understanding in American Schools* (Washington: Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the National Council for the Social Studies, 1948), p. 182.

Materials on the United Nations and UNESCO may be obtained by writing to

- a. United Nations Department of Public Information, Lake Success, New York.
- b. Department of State, Division of Publications, Office of Public Affairs, Washington, D. C.
- c. National Citizens' Commission for United Nations Day, 816 Twenty-first Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.
- d. Division of International Educational Relations, U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.

for elementary schools. Ever since the subject of geography was added to the elementary school curriculum some attention has been given to this problem. Certain other phases of the school program, such as the folk songs of other lands and the art and handicraft of other peoples, have also contributed. World War II, however, opened men's eyes to the inadequacies in the educational programs of our country as well as in those of other nations. In the United States the federal Department of State, through its Office of Inter-American Affairs, took an active lead in promoting hemispheric solidarity of the Americas through education. Institutes were held, bulletins were published,²² and other activities were sponsored. As a result of the impetus given the movement by the Department of State and the United States Office of Education, the concept of intercultural education was broadened, textbooks and library books were scrutinized carefully for accuracy and attitudes conveyed as well as to make sure that stories about other peoples portrayed the typical customs rather than the spectacular or the bizarre. Although it is too early at this writing to know the extent to which efforts at intercultural education will be modified, there is some evidence to indicate that many phases of social-studies instruction and activities in art, music, and physical education will be altered appreciably to give fuller expression to the need for world understanding and world viewpoints.

Chapter Summary

The chief purposes of this chapter have been (1) to set forth the importance of educating for satisfying human relations, (2) to show that this phase of education involves the attainment of ideals, attitudes, and proficiencies in skills or conduct, (3) to clarify the meaning of the several subheadings under which one may detail the broader field of educating for satisfying human relations, (4) to illustrate the different avenues and procedures used by schools in helping children to achieve proficiency in human relations, and (5) to give a broader vision of needs and potentialities in this phase of our educational program. In general, schools in this country have always been concerned to some degree with the objectives of human relations. It cannot be said, however, that they have always clearly visualized the importance of this group of objectives, have taken deliberate steps to plan instructional procedures specifically designed to enhance children's education along

²² Helen Follett, *This Way to Latin America* (New York: Horace Mann-Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943); *Inter-American Friendship through the Schools*, Bulletin No. 10 (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, 1941).

these lines, or have utilized to maximum advantage the educational opportunities that were inherent in activities already taking place. In the future, school programs will undoubtedly be geared more deliberately toward the attainment of the objectives of human relations.

The following major ideas were developed in this chapter.

1. Proficiency in human relations is important in achieving self-realization, in satisfying one's social needs, in discharging one's civic responsibilities, in achieving success in one's vocational pursuits, and in achieving a democratic form of society. There is thus a direct relation between education for satisfying human relations and the attainment of the ideal of democracy.

2. Proficiency in human relations involves the development of ideals, attitudes, and social skills that are consistent with the ideal of self-realization within the framework of the general welfare.

3. Schools use a large variety of avenues in their effort to help children acquire proficiency in human relations.

4. The complex and all-pervading nature of educating children for satisfying human relations makes it difficult as well as undesirable to isolate or segregate the school's effort in this regard into one or a few special categories or subjects. Proficiency in human relations is taught within the broad matrix of children's activities; some of the teaching efforts may be direct, but many of them must be indirect from the standpoint of the children.

5. Practical situations in school life are among the most effective occasions for teaching desirable human relations while learning to live with others in mutually satisfying ways.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Cummings, Howard H. (ed.). *Improving Human Relations. Bulletin 25.* Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, November, 1949.
2. Hilliard, Pauline. "Social Education: What Direction? What Guides? What Help?" *Childhood Education*, 30 (April, 1954), 377-384.
3. Mayer, Jane. *Getting Along in the Family.* ("Parent-Teacher Series.") New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.
4. Redden, John D., and Francis A. Ryan. *Intercultural Education.* Milwaukee: Bruce Pub. Co., 1951, Chap. 3, "Intercultural Education through the School."
5. Wesley, Edgar Bruce, and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary Schools.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1952. Chap. 1, "Human Relations and the Social Studies."

Suggested Student Activities

1. Visit an elementary school and observe (a) incidents that reflect conflict in interpupil relations, (b) methods used by teachers in utilizing school situations to further education in human relations, (c) the ways in which pupil participation in school and classroom management is utilized to extend children's proficiencies in human relations, and (d) the topics or activities in classroom instruction that make valuable contributions to the objectives of human relations.

2. Examine a variety of children's books at different grade levels and make note of the types of selections and stories that have value in promoting attitudes, ideals, and concepts regarding the various phases of the field of human relations.

3. Find pictures to illustrate how schools are trying to realize the objectives discussed in this chapter. For example, a picture of children welcoming a new child would suggest one phase of human relations.

4. View the films *You and Your Family* and *You and Your Parents* (each film 16 mm., sound, black and white, 8 minutes; Associated Films, 79 E. Adams Street, Chicago, Illinois). Explain how they might be used with children.

5. See and discuss one of the filmstrips of the United Nations, such as Filmstrip 73F, *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, produced by the United Nations Department of Public Information, 1953.



Educating for Economic Efficiency

Heretofore the elementary school has seldom been thought of as a unit in the educational system that has any special responsibility for or made much of a contribution toward the objectives of economic efficiency. Most people still think that education for economic efficiency is a responsibility that belongs to the high schools, the trade schools, and the colleges and universities that offer diploma or degree programs in the vocational and professional fields. Preparation for one's chosen field of gainful employment is usually thought to be synonymous with courses in shorthand, typing, bookkeeping, printing, mechanical drawing, woodwork, automobile mechanics, electricity, general shop, plumbing, airplane mechanics, home economics, or the many other courses customarily earmarked as vocational courses. As a rule, the various college-degree curriculums in engineering, architecture, law, medicine, education, and pharmacy are not included in the category of "vocational" preparation, but in a broad sense, all forms of schooling geared specifically toward the development of proficiency in a given vocational field may be thought of as vocational preparation.

The first point to be established, then, is that preparation for a specific field of employment is broader than the list of so-called trade or "vocational" courses or the specific courses a person might take to prepare himself for a certain field of work, or the acquisition of the ability to perform satisfactorily the specific tasks of a given vocational field. Proficiency in a given vocational pursuit requires, in addition to the specialized knowledges and skills, a wide variety of generalized knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Practically everyone in today's society

9. Knowledge of the cost and suitability of the various types of consumer credit and the various types of life insurance, and the safety of and return from ordinary methods of saving and investing, especially those available to persons of small means.
10. Knowledge of the cost and suitability for various purposes of the usual methods of communication, shipping, and travel.
11. The ability to manage one's income so as to obtain from it the maximum satisfactions. This involves the habit of weighing comparative values and costs; the ability to evaluate the claims made by advertising and salespeople; the ability to apportion the available income among the several needs of one's self and one's dependents, and to determine how much, if any, should be used for advancement, charity, insurance, and savings.
12. An understanding of the costs of living and an appreciation of the economic burdens involved in maintaining a family.

Economic Competence as a Citizen Involves

13. The abhorrence of waste, whether it be of one's own resources, *those of others, or those that are socially owned*; in particular, an abhorrence of the unnecessary waste of any natural or human resource.
14. Acquaintance with the methods and purposes of organizations, such as labor unions, cooperatives, credit unions, consumer associations, Farm Bureaus, and people's lobbies, through which persons in the ordinary walks of life may seek the economic betterment of their group or of society.
15. Economic literacy in civic affairs. This includes such items as
 - a. The ability to participate intelligently in determining how tax money shall be raised and apportioned.
 - b. Understanding that government expenditures (except for war and for corrupt purposes) do not diminish the national income.
 - c. Appreciation of the relationship of adequate income to health and efficiency; understanding that social and government expenditures to raise all families to the health and efficiency level can be justified on economic as well as on humanitarian grounds.
 - d. The knowledge that increased productivity, and not merely a *redistribution of the current national income*, is necessary for improving the scale of living of the masses of people.
 - e. Realization that one of the central problems of our time is to regulate production and distribution in the interests of all the people, while preserving and freeing individual initiative.
16. Appreciation of the possibilities for good and for evil inherent in machine production. This includes such understandings as the following:
 - a. Mass production operated solely for personal gain has both good and evil consequences. *Among the evil consequences is the concentration of income and power in the hands of a small class.*

- b. Mass production when operated in the interests of society as a whole has tremendous possibilities for human welfare.
 - c. Our economy cannot operate successfully unless the earnings of the masses of people are adequate to make the products of industry available to all.
 - d. The United States has the natural resources, the labor, the capital, and the technical knowledge necessary for abolishing poverty and the fear of poverty.
17. Recognition of the main line of economic change and hospitality to needed change.

The foregoing lists include only the skills, knowledge, and understandings thought to be essential to the economic competence of the average American. A good case could doubtless be made for the inclusion of other items.

Study of the lists suggests (1) that education for economic competence must extend over a long period of years; (2) that it must give abundant practice in weighing alternatives and making choices; (3) that it should be closely related to the real economic problems of the students and the community. It is apparent that economic competence is not likely to result from exposure, however prolonged, to an academic type of schooling.¹

Means Utilized by Elementary Schools to Promote Economic Efficiency

Although the literature in elementary education, especially the books dealing with elementary school teaching, has not given much prominence to the elementary school's role in education for economic efficiency, attention to this problem is really not a new phase of elementary education. Elementary schools have always been considered as the schools that provide rudimentary training in the common branches of reading, writing, language, arithmetic, and some history, geography, and civics. In so far as proficiency in these rudiments is basic to competence in all fields of gainful employment and the management of one's personal and civic affairs, the elementary school is making definite contributions to this objective. There is no thought here of trying to persuade the reader that instruction in the three R's should be classified as "vocational training," but one should recognize that this instruction is by no means irrelevant.

Chapters 5 and 6 dealt with educating for self-realization and for satisfying human relations. In so far as these two areas have direct

¹ Ruth Wood Gavian, *Education for Economic Competence in Grades I to VI*, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education No. 854 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), pp. 8-11. Reprinted by permission.

bearing on one's economic efficiency, it becomes clear that here are two other broad phases of elementary education that have important contributions to make to one's proficiency in economic affairs. The two areas treated in Chapters 5 and 6 have been prominent elements of elementary school programs for many years.

Whatever activities take place in elementary schools that help in educating children's hands should also be recognized as contributions toward education for economic efficiency. The tendency in elementary schools in the United States has been to place emphasis upon educating the mind rather than the hand. Education of the mind is important, but so is the development of all types of bodily and manual skills. Schools in this country have not given as much attention to the development of hand and body skills as they probably should. Instruction in handwriting and art makes some contributions in this regard, especially if the work in art is conceived broadly to include modeling with clay, weaving with various types of materials, working with leather, tin, and wood, and constructing or repairing simple household articles. In some schools the making of costumes for plays and construction activities of various kinds are integral phases of units in the social studies. Many of the eight-grade elementary schools provide organized courses in home-making and industrial arts for seventh- and eighth-grade pupils.

One evidence of the concern of the elementary schools of today with the problem of economic efficiency is seen in the studies that have been made recently by groups of educational leaders, such as the ones resulting from the Tennessee Workshop in Economic Education.²

That elementary schools have been mindful of their responsibility for educating children for economic efficiency is evidenced by an analysis of the objectives stated in courses of study for elementary schools. Gavian analyzed 210 general courses of study, 210 social studies courses, 114 arithmetic courses, and 138 science courses for grades one through six. She found 15 different objectives stated in these courses of study that could be classified definitely as bearing upon economic competence. This list of 15 objectives included most of the items of individual proficiency quoted in a preceding paragraph.³

The content subjects of arithmetic, science, and social studies contain much material that has direct bearing upon the development of economic efficiency. Gavian's analysis of 114 arithmetic courses of study revealed the following classifications of topics relating to eco-

² Mimeographed bulletins of the Tennessee Workshop in Economic Education. "Developing Economic Competency of Elementary School Children," Bulletin No. 1, 1950, "Resource Units for Elementary Schools," Bulletin No. 4, 1951. Distributed by the Joint Council on Economic Education, 444 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.

³ Gavian, *op. cit.*, pp. 34-35

economic competence: (1) cost of various items of living (only problems involving investigation of actual costs were counted); (2) money management (consumer-business practices); (3) banking; (4) school and education costs; (5) business practices; and (6) miscellaneous economic information.*

Gavian's analysis of 138 science courses of study for grades one through six produced many topics that relate specifically to economic efficiency. Many of these topics were concerned with conservation; others referred to agriculture and horticulture, water supply, electricity, and household science.⁴

Additional means utilized by elementary schools in educating for economic efficiency consist of the content of social-studies courses and certain specialized activities. These will be discussed in some detail at the various appropriate places in the sections that follows.

Work

The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship, and appreciates the social value of his work. A few people are not required to contribute directly toward the provision of goods and services of social and individual value; in many respects such people may be considered unfortunate. "Work" as used here includes the efforts of the teacher, the physician, the housewife, the businessman, the artist, the office worker, and all those who have some useful occupation. Work, in its broadest sense, is basic to human well-being. This relation of work to human well-being can be understood best if one visualizes the pathetic predicament and the demoralizing and disintegrating situation of those who have virtually nothing to do, no responsibilities, or no useful role in society to motivate and integrate their life and activities. Work is something to be sought, enjoyed, and respected.

From the standpoint of children's education, three aspects of work merit attention here. One of these is the development of an understanding of what is meant by work, an appreciation of its value, and a positive attitude toward it as a respected and noble activity. Perhaps this phase of the problem could be described as the development of desirable attitudes. The second aspect is concerned with the development of the knowledges and skills essential for proficiency in work of various kinds. So much of our educational program deals with this phase that further comment seems unnecessary. The third aspect deals

* *Ibid.*, pp. 150-151.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 156-158.

with work experience. The old adage of "learning to do by doing" is applicable here. The only way to learn the real meaning of work is to work. In recent years, in the field of secondary education, much stress has been placed upon the importance of giving high school pupils an opportunity to acquire work experience in real jobs during summer months or on a part-time basis during the school year. In secondary schools, work experience is regarded as an essential feature of the education of youth. Not many elementary schools have provided actual work experience for their pupils; however, some schools are experimenting with the idea. One private school in New York worked out a plan whereby each group of children, beginning with the eight-year-olds, had a job to do—a job that had real usefulness to the school and one for which the children themselves assumed responsibility. One group set up and maintained a post office; another group operated a store that sold school supplies.⁴ All three aspects of work as previously described were provided for in these jobs. Each child was paid a small amount each month for the work that he had done for the school. The teachers and the children in this school considered the experiment both beneficial and successful.

In schools that do not offer opportunities for real work experiences, many indirect channels for achieving this objective are utilized. Several phases of child life in elementary schools pertain rather directly to the objective relating to work. Social-studies units on "the home" or "the family" usually dwell on the services or contributions of different members of the family in carrying on family living; emphasis is also placed on the ways in which children can be helpful in the home. Units on "the milkman," "the postman," and "the fireman" explore the nature of the work these community helpers do and the services they render. In later grades the study of various occupations or industries helps to broaden the concept of work. All of these types of instructional activities help to develop positive attitudes toward work and at least an awareness of the variety of vocational opportunities.

Throughout the child's school career teachers emphasize various elements of good workmanship. Neatness in storing books and papers in desks, in room arrangement, in handwriting, in art, in the arrangement of written work, and in many other phases of school life is stressed continuously by teachers. As the attention span of children grows longer, tasks of longer duration are expected of them. Teachers are constantly urging children to stay with a task until it is completed, thus endeavoring to develop perseverance. Good workmanship is stressed in many activities, particularly in art and handicraft projects.

⁴ Caroline Pratt, *I Learn from Children* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1948), Chap. 9.

Pupil participation in school and classroom management, if wisely planned, can also furnish opportunities that have many of the essential characteristics of real work experiences. Such necessary tasks as caring for the cleanliness, orderliness, and attractiveness of the classroom, sharing in the management of books, supplies, and equipment, supervising traffic in the halls, on the playground, and on the streets, helping in the care, protection, and beautification of the school buildings and grounds, and engaging in school and community improvement projects are some of the ways in which children can assist and through assistance experience many of the values inherent in gainful employment. Such pupil activities as these contribute much toward the "work" objective.[†]

Occupation Information and Occupation Choice

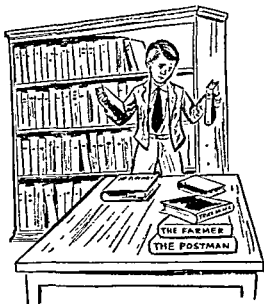
The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs and has selected his occupation. Children of elementary school age are too young to be expected to decide what vocation they will follow in later life, although many children even at the age of six make very positive comments about what they are going to be when they grow up. Who hasn't heard the six-year-old boast that he will be a policeman, a locomotive engineer, or a contractor who builds skyscrapers or homes? Most of these childhood pronouncements are prompted by the awe and admiration children feel as they make their initial acquaintance with the wonderful achievements of man. Seldom, however, do these early vocational choices remain fixed. A child may change his vocational choice a dozen or more times between the ages of six or eight and eighteen or twenty-one. Most people do not make their vocational plans until late adolescence or postadolescence. In fact, most people have merely *drifted* into the occupations that they later engage in for short or long periods of time.

Several important generalizations are evident for the elementary school worker. First, elementary school children are too immature to make wise or lasting vocational choices. Second, the elementary school should not urge children to choose their vocations, and elementary school teachers should not be expected to be vocational counselors. Third, since *drifting* into some occupational field results in much wasteful occupational shifting and many a square peg in a round hole, the schools have a heavy responsibility for giving children a broad background of information about many kinds of occupations and for

[†] Elsa Schneider, *How Children and Teacher Work Together*, Place of Subject Series, Bulletin No. 14 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1952).

helping them (at the senior high school and college levels) to make wise occupational choices, thus avoiding some of this waste.

Elementary schools give children a background of information about occupations through excursions, through study units and topics,



"What! No books about space pilots?"

and through home, school, and community improvement projects. The experiments in community improvement mentioned in Chapter 6 are illustrative of the latter type. Most schools today take the children on a variety of excursions to local shops, stores, offices, and industries. Trips to the farm, the dairy, the grocery store, the post office, the city hall, the bank, the newspaper office, the hospital, local industries, and dozens of other places are commonly integrated in various units of study. All such firsthand contacts with local services and occupations provide occupational information that children acquire and interpret in increasingly mature ways as they pass through the elementary school.

Course of study or instructional topics and units which contribute directly to this objective are numerous and varied. Topics in arithmetic and units in social studies and science were summarized at an earlier point in this chapter. To see how these topics and units build a background of occupational information, it might be well to review those lists at this time. These topics are supplemented in later grades with

many other activities. For a comprehensive analysis of topics related to economic competence found in 210 general and 210 social-studies courses for grades one through six, we turn to tabulations by Gavian. Under the general heading of "Industries and Occupations in the Modern World" there were twelve topics with the frequency of appearance shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Topics in Industries and Occupations Found in 420 Courses of Study

Topics	Appearance in 420 Courses of Study	
	Number	Per Cent
1. Farming, gardening, stock raising	314	75
2. Transportation	257	61
3. Manufacturing	232	55
4. Communication	212	51
5. Mining and quarrying	159	38
6. Lumbering, forestry, forest products	147	35
7. Fishing	132	31
8. Storekeeping	121	29
9. Recreation industry; travel for recreation	97	23
10. Local occupations in general	91	22
11. Construction workers and industry	80	19
12. Electric power industry	63	15

Source: Ruth Wood Gavian, *Education for Economic Competence in Grades 1 to VI*. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education No. 854 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), p. 61. Reprinted by permission.

Occupational Efficiency and Adjustment

The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation, and maintains and improves his efficiency. Success in one's chosen field of work has significant bearing upon the attainment of the other values in life. The increasing specialization in jobs has a tendency to narrow the scope of occupational proficiency required of any one individual and to require a higher degree of proficiency in the narrower field. The changing nature of industrial processes and products brings about rapid changes in the types and character of jobs and thus requires the continuous in-service education of practically all workers in all fields. Both of these factors place new responsibilities upon the schools, but largely on the high schools, colleges, and trade schools. The elementary schools are relatively unaffected by this problem and thus have no major role

to play in attaining the educational objective stated at the beginning of this paragraph. However, a direct contribution toward this objective has been evident in some of the experiments with school stores. In her description of a school store Pratt⁶ relates that the children operating the school store studied diligently to increase their efficiency in the use of the number skills they needed in order to be better storekeepers.

There are a few indirect ways, however, through which the elementary school makes some kind of contribution toward this objective. Teachers consciously guide children into tasks that provide a challenge but are within their reach and that they are motivated to tackle with genuine vigor. Teachers try to instill in children a feeling of zeal, delight, and satisfaction in a difficult task well done. In the subject fields, diagnostic tests are used to discover difficulties in learning; once these have been clearly identified, the teacher helps the pupil to plan for himself a program of instruction and practice. The pupil is thus self-motivated to strive for his own improvement. Undoubtedly such practices have value in developing positive attitudes and habits toward sincere application and success in one's chosen vocation. The fact that children are encouraged to look forward to new and interesting challenges in succeeding grades also makes positive contributions to this objective. Units in the social studies give many opportunities to contrast earlier with present practices in living and making a living; thus they tend to familiarize children with the idea of change and the concept that change is a characteristic of progress and that man must adjust himself continuously to the changing circumstances of his environment.

bling against odds which can be stated only in astronomical terms—these undermine economic security and efficiency at all income levels and among all sorts of people. The educated consumer budgets his expenditures in the light of good principles as adjusted to his own particular circumstances and financial ability. He has learned that small expenditures, constantly repeated, mount to large totals. He knows that all borrowing costs the borrower money, and sometimes exorbitantly so. He knows that instalment buying is a form of borrowing. He can balance a checkbook. He buys no gold-bricks. He uses good sense in his savings and understands the relative advantages of banks, insurance, credit unions, the postal savings system, government securities, and the various types of business investments as a means of developing and utilizing his reserves. Through such means, the educated consumer has learned to exercise the highest possible degree of economic self-responsibility.⁹

The elementary school makes a variety of contributions toward the thrift phase of personal economics. Teachers have always emphasized frugality in the use of school supplies, the economical use of pupil time, the care of books to avoid unnecessary expense for new ones, and the wisdom of saving one's money for future need. This general emphasis might be termed "thrift education." During the 1920's it centered on getting pupils to deposit money weekly in the school savings bank. Many schools today are continuing the weekly "bank day." In some instances a school bank has been established and operated by a group of elementary school pupils. Such an experiment was carried on by the fifth and sixth grades of the Steele School of Colorado Springs. This experiment was intended not only for the purpose of fostering saving but also to give actual experience in the procedures involved in banking, such as keeping one's account balanced, making deposit slips, and writing checks. Many checks were written by the pupil depositors for the March of Dimes, Christmas seals, and the like.¹⁰

Another activity that gave added emphasis to educating for personal economics was a school credit union organized and incorporated under the laws of the school community to encourage saving, to provide small loans, and to afford experience in the control of credit.¹¹

Gavian found the tendencies in thrift education well illustrated in a unit for intermediate grades entitled "Keeping a Personal Budget," which had as its objectives promoting growth in (1) appreciation of the amount of money parents have to spend, (2) habit of spending money wisely, (3) willingness to practice thrift, (4) interest in keeping

⁹ *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association of the United States and American Association of School Administrators, 1938), pp. 101-102.

¹⁰ Robert L. Davis, "Big Business for Little People," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 42 (September, 1953), p. 360.

¹¹ Leo J. Brueckner and Foster L. Grossnickle, *Making Arithmetic Meaningful* (Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1953), p. 9.

a personal budget, and (5) skill in keeping simple accounts and appreciation of their value.¹²

Gradually the idea of thrift education emerged into a broader concept. Although the principles, practices, and advantages of saving and the weekly school banking day continued to be a part of the program in thrift education, other goals were included. As related to the child, the broader meaning of thrift included proper use of (1) his time, (2) his talent, (3) his energy and effort, (4) his physical and mental health, and (5) material things. Intelligent spending rather than miserly hoarding was urged. Some school systems even developed special course of study bulletins on thrift education.

TABLE 3

Topics Relating to Home Life in Our Community Found in
420 Courses of Study

Topics	Appearances in 420 Courses of Study	
	Number	Per Cent
1. Diet: selecting a healthful	249	59
2. House: planning and constructing	174	41
3. Clothing: selection of	167	40
4. Sewing, mending, or dyeing	149	36
5. House: caring for and improving	148	35
6. House: furnishing and decorating	145	35
7. Food: actual preparation or preservation of	134	32
8. Clothing: care of	121	29
9. Textiles: kinds, selection of	92	22
10. Refreshments: actual serving to guests	83	20
11. Toys: care, repair, making, selection of	72	17
12. Remedies and treatments: selection of	40	10
13. Household preparations	39	9

Source: Ruth Wood Gavian, *Education for Economic Competence in Grades I to VI*, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education No. 854 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), p. 81. Reprinted by permission.

The extent to which attention to personal economics was incorporated into the various content subjects may be seen from Gavian's analysis. Topics in arithmetic and science were listed earlier in this chapter. In social studies and general courses of study, under the caption of "Home Life in Our Community," Gavian found the topics related to economic competence in grades one through six as shown in Table 3.

¹² Gavian, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

Under the heading of "Money Management" Gavian found only six topics related to economic competence. No one of these six topics appeared in more than 8 per cent of the 420 courses of study. The six topics were (1) budgets, (2) cash accounts, (3) giving to worthy causes, (4) thrift in buying, (5) caution in responding to advertising, and (6) how to use consumer credit.¹³

As we have seen, personal economics continues to get attention in our elementary schools today. There can be no doubt about the fact that elementary schools make many and varied contributions to the objective of intelligent planning of the economics of one's own life.

Consumer Judgment and Efficiency in Buying

The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures and is an informed and skillful buyer. This twofold objective has its corresponding counterparts in the educational effort of schools. The development of desirable standards in human relations, in workmanship, in the quality of one's finished products, in music and art, in the beautification of one's home, in the selection and care of one's clothing, and in numerous other matters has long been an objective of the schools. In fact, if one wishes to take the broader view, the school's effort to help children develop high standards in all phases of life is but a practical expression of the school's responsibility for striving to improve society. The elementary schools certainly share in this responsibility.

As one narrows the development of standards to "standards for guiding one's expenditures," the field is restricted to economic matters and, more specifically, to the selection of the articles and services for which the individual spends his money. This narrower concept, however, has two aspects. The first pertains to decisions regarding the types of purchases the individual will make. Will he spend all his money on forms of entertainment or will he spend some on good paintings for his home, a scientifically nutritious diet for his family, medical care, and only a carefully budgeted quota on entertainment? Listing one's types of expenditures in some kind of rank order involves the application of value criteria. The development of these criteria is thus an important educational concern.

The second aspect of "standards for guiding one's expenditures" is concerned with standards of quality within each of the groups of expenditures. Should a woman buy an inexpensive dress that is poorly made and of poor material or should she buy one of better materials

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 132.

and workmanship even though its initial cost may be much higher? What is good economy in matters of this type? Should she buy the highest-priced fancy cuts of meat or can equally good or better nutrition be achieved through the purchase of cheaper cuts? What kinds of knowledge and skill must people have if they are going to be "informed and skillful buyers"?

The answers to the questions raised in the preceding paragraph open up a broad phase of education known as "consumer education." People have been aware for a long time of their uncertainty about their ability to buy wisely. Because of the complicated processes of manufacturing, labeling of goods, and advertising, the consumer frequently finds himself bewildered and at the mercy of the marketing agencies. The federal government became interested in the protection of the consumer as long ago as 1906, when the Food and Drugs Act was passed. The latest revision of this act, known as the Food, Drug, and Cosmetics Act, was passed in 1938.

Consumer education, however, did not get under way until in the 1920's. The first book that gave formal recognition to the problem of consumer education was Henry Harap's *The Education of the Consumer*, published in 1924.¹⁴ The same author wrote *Economic Life and the Curriculum*, published in 1927.¹⁵ Since that time the concern for consumer education has spread widely. A comprehensive recent treatise on the subject may be found in *Consumer Education in the Schools* by Herbert A. Tonne¹⁶ and *Consumer Education* by James E. Mendenhall and Henry Harap.¹⁷ In addition to these publications on the adult level, books pertaining to consumer education on the child's level have also appeared; among these are *Johnny Get Your Money's Worth* by Ruth Brindze¹⁸ and *Behind the Show Window* by Jeanette Eaton.¹⁹

The public schools are concerned with consumer education in home economics, social studies, business, science, and mathematics courses in the secondary schools. Some high schools have a special course in consumer problems. The elementary school's contribution to consumer education, although naturally not as extensive as that of the secondary schools, is significant and fairly broad in scope. The general emphasis on the development of desirable standards of all kinds has already been mentioned, including the emphasis placed upon the development of high standards in literature, art, and music. Values thus acquired have direct application in the selection of leisure-time reading

¹⁴ New York: The Macmillan Co.

¹⁵ New York: The Macmillan Co.

¹⁶ New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941.

¹⁷ New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943.

¹⁸ New York: Vanguard Press, Inc., 1938.

¹⁹ New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1935.

materials, in the beautification of one's home (including the selection of materials needed therefor), and in the selection of recreational pursuits. Games taught and values acquired through physical education have their application in the choice of out-of-school leisure pursuits.



In the social studies, science, and arithmetic, many phases of consumer education are treated, as indicated by the topics previously quoted from Gavian's study. In health instruction some attention is directed, for example, toward types of common and inexpensive foods that contain the necessary food elements, the proper kind of toothbrush to use, the composition of desirable types of tooth paste, and appropriate kinds of clothes to wear for different purposes. A complete list of all the topics in elementary school instruction that relate to consumer education would obviously be a very long one.

Mendenhall and Harap give many examples of activities being carried on in elementary schools that give opportunity for the development of consumer judgment; these examples are given

under four headings: (1) experiences in using and caring for consumer goods, (2) experiences in making choices, (3) experiences in market selection, and (4) experiences giving insight into the consumer problems of others.²⁰ Mitchell gives an example of a co-curricular activity being used to foster consumer judgment in her description of a Junior Consumer Club organized in a sixth grade in one of the New York City schools; one of the activities of this club was the writing and presenting of an assembly program based on "The Story of Mary's Coat."²¹

The above examples and suggestions would seem to indicate that

²⁰ Mendenhall and Harap, *op. cit.*, Chap. 6.

²¹ Lucy Sprague Mitchell, *Our Children and Our Schools* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1930), pp. 490-495.

the elementary school can play an important role in the achievement of the objective concerned with consumer judgment and efficiency in buying.

Consumer Protection

The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests. What has already been said about consumer education applies equally well to consumer protection. The wider the value concepts the individual uses in guiding his expenditures and the more informed and skillful he is as a buyer, the better is he able to protect his interests. But the field of safeguarding consumer interests is much broader than the scope of activities of the individual consumer in his daily routines of living. Consumer interests must be viewed on a national and international scale and in terms of the consumer of tomorrow as well as the consumer of today. This broader concept brings into the picture long-term world planning, international trade, tariffs, regulations on interstate commerce, state laws relating to the use of natural resources, conservation of natural resources, reforestation, regional conservation and natural resource development projects such as the Tennessee Valley Authority, and a score of other topics.

Many of the broader aspects of safeguarding consumer interests are too involved for children to comprehend, but many of its phases are dealt with successfully in the elementary school. Knowledge of the world supply and distribution of natural resources gained in the study of geography provides information that can be utilized in discussing specific local and national issues. The courses in science and in arithmetic also contain many relevant topics. The topics in science and arithmetic quoted from Gavian's study in the earlier part of this chapter suggest their applicability to consumer protection. For example, in the analysis of the 210 general, and the 210 social-studies courses for grades one through six, Gavian found three topics (soil and minerals, water control, and forests, flowers, and wild life) mentioned in from 16 to 52 per cent of the courses. Under the heading "Local Community Services and Their Support," her analysis revealed six topics (taxation, public school system, water supply and sewage disposal, health protection, fire and police protection, and recreational facilities) that were mentioned in from 8 to 31 per cent of the 420 courses of study. Many of these topics deal with the problem of conservation, which is treated in Chapter 8. Dealing adequately with the topic of conservation seems to be one of the most appropriate contributions that the elementary school can make to the objective of consumer protection.

Chapter Summary

The purposes of this chapter were (1) to explain and clarify the objectives of economic efficiency and (2) to describe and illustrate the role of the elementary school in educating for economic efficiency. Although the elementary school does not offer specialized types of "vocational" courses, the elementary school makes many and varied contributions toward children's attainment of this group of objectives.

These major ideas were developed.

1. Preparation for a specific field of employment is broader than the lists of so-called "vocational" courses.

2. Education for self-realization, for satisfying human relations, and for civic responsibility are integral phases of education for economic efficiency.

3. The elementary school makes many and varied contributions toward the broad concept of the objectives of economic efficiency.

4. Socially useful work is something to be sought, enjoyed, and respected.

5. Useful work is fundamental to the individual's mental hygiene and the integration of his personality.

6. Children of elementary school age should not be expected to make abiding decisions about the field of gainful employment that they will pursue in adult life, but elementary schools can provide children with much background information, which may be drawn on later when vocational choices are made.

7. Consumer education and the teaching of conservation are important aspects of education for economic efficiency.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Mendenhall, James E., and Henry Harap. *Consumer Education*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943.
2. Stevenson, Elizabeth. *Home and Family Life Education in Elementary Schools*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1946. Chap. 10, "Being an Intelligent Consumer."

Suggested Student Activities

1. List the different ways in which the elementary school contributes toward the objectives of economic efficiency. From your visits to elementary schools, from films or filmstrips that you have seen, and from the narratives of schools given in Chapter 1, give examples of evidences of efforts being made to realize these objectives of economic efficiency.

2. Preview some of the following films (each film 16 mm., sound, black and white or color, 1 reel; Coronet Films, Chicago, Illinois). Discuss their value for helping achieve the objectives of economic efficiency.

- a. Your Thrift Habits*
- b. Your Family Budget*
- c. What Is Business?*
- d. What Is Money?*



Educating for Civic Responsibility

A hermit is a person who has retired from society and lives alone. Anyone who is not a hermit associates with other persons. When such association results in various types of cooperative effort in the pursuit of common purposes, we have the beginnings of what is called "a society." In more technical terms, "society" is defined as an enduring, cooperating social group so functioning as to maintain and perpetuate itself, or as any group (but especially a nation) consisting of human beings who are relatively similar in race and culture, who have more or less clearly recognized common interests, and who cooperate in the pursuit of those interests.¹

Being a member of a social group means that one must perform his role in the group; otherwise the society disintegrates. The type of society to which one belongs determines the nature of the individual's role. In other words, the nature of one's citizenship responsibilities depends upon the type of society to which one belongs. From certain standpoints, societies may be thought of as if they were arranged along a scale with democracy at one extreme and totalitarianism at the other. Various types of societies would fall somewhere along the scale, depending upon the degree to which their characteristics resembled democracy or totalitarianism. Wrightstone and Campbell have helped to clarify the distinction between the two basic forms of society by listing the ideals and principles of democracy and of totalitarianism in tabular form.

¹ *Dictionary of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945), p. 378.

DEMOCRACY

1. The general purpose of democracy is to serve the people individually and collectively to the end that each may protect the welfare of all and all may protect the welfare of each. The welfare of the individual, however, is the end sought.

2. Discussion and persuasion are the general methods of national government and international relations.

3. The ultimate of the democratic ideal, as applied to government, is a world democratic state, built upon the equality of all mankind.

4. The civil liberties, freedom of thought, speech, action, and religion are guaranteed to individuals as necessary to the functioning of democracy.

5. The officers responsible for carrying out the will of the people are chosen and recalled by the people in free elections.

6. Democracy thrives on an informed and critical public opinion. Suppression and distortion of the news constitute an offense. When one newspaper suppresses news, another exposes it.

In the United States the people are committed to a democratic form of society. Consequently, to discharge one's role in society, to perform one's civic responsibilities in the United States, one must be able to function appropriately and effectively in a democratic society.² What skills, attitudes, ideals, knowledges, and understandings must one

TOTALITARIANISM

1. The general purpose of totalitarianism is to promote the interests and welfare of the state. The dictator is the state and in no way responsible to the people. The individual is an indissoluble and undistinguishable part of the state.

2. Force and violence are the general methods of achieving the purpose in internal and in international relations.

3. The ultimate of the totalitarian ideal is a world state dominated by force and controlled by one nation made up of the "highest human species given by the grace of the Almighty to this earth." (*Mein Kampf*, II, 439)

4. The denial of civil liberties is essential to the functioning of totalitarianism.

5. The officers responsible for the government of the people are chosen by the dictator and subject only to his will.

6. Totalitarianism thrives on a subjugated press and on the suppression and distortion of news. It retains its power through the propagation of ignorance and fear. It purges its newspapers.³

² From J. Wayne Wrightstone and Doak S. Campbell, *Social Studies and the American Way of Life* (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Co., 1942), pp. 7-8. Reprinted by permission.

³ In order to secure simplicity and clarity the authors have deviated somewhat from technical distinctions between "one's role in society" and "one's civic responsibilities." The reader should recognize that one's role in society is technically much broader than one's civic responsibilities.

have for civic responsibility in a democratic society? The answer to this question outlines the task of educating for civic responsibility and constitutes the theme of this chapter. Before we turn to that answer, let us pause for a few moments to get a clearer picture of the nature of a democratic society.

A Democratic Society Described

Democracy, as we know it in the United States, is the result of a long period of deliberate effort by peoples in many parts of the world. In ancient Athens the citizens participated in a political democracy. In England the Magna Carta of 1215 was a landmark in the introduction of political and civil rights. By slow degrees democratic ways of life developed in different parts of the world. The English colonists who settled in America brought many democratic principles to the new land.

In founding their republic the people of the United States drew up a constitution that would create a democratic society. Some say that this form of society is a democracy; others approach the problem by describing democracy as a way of life.⁴

A democratic society does not lend itself to a simple definition, and most writers have contented themselves with a description rather than a definition of democracy.⁵ Two noteworthy attempts in this direction will be mentioned here.

It is important to remember that the American way of life is still evolving, still struggling toward ideals that steadily move upward with man's enlightened progress. The ideals of American democracy were set forth in a recent yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies as follows:

Since the primary function of the social studies teacher is to develop in children and youth the characteristics of behavior essential to a broader realization of democratic ideals, it is imperative that these ideals are understood and appreciated. Basic American democratic ideals include:

1. A respect for the infinite value of the individual and a recognition of his sacred worth. From this ideal comes the concept of the dignity of every individual and mutual respect between all individuals.
2. A belief in equality of opportunity for each individual to develop and use his potentialities. The ideal of human equality has no validity without equality of opportunity.

⁴ B. H. Bode, *Democracy as a Way of Life* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1937).

⁵ C. E. Meriam, *What Is Democracy?* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941).

3. The team method of solving common problems and promoting common concerns. From this ideal have come our political methods and our ways of working together cooperatively in groups.
4. A faith in the use of reason. A belief that the typical individual can make sound judgments within the range of his experiences and be self-dependent and self-directing.
5. Hope for the future—a faith that if we do work together and use our reason, we can solve our problems and continue in the future to improve our way of life as we have in the past.*

Four of the publications of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators are especially pertinent here.⁷ In Chapter II of Book III of *Policies for Education in American Democracy* an attempt is made to sweep into a few broad generalizations the minimum essentials of democracy. The gist of the formulation is given in the following quotation.

THE GENERAL WELFARE. Democracy prizes a broad humanitarianism, an interest in the other fellow, a feeling of kinship to other people more or less fortunate than oneself. One who lives in accordance with democracy is interested not only in his own welfare but in the welfare of others—the general welfare.

CIVIL LIBERTY. Democratic behavior observes and accords to every individual certain "unalienable rights" and certain inescapable corollary responsibilities. One who lives in a democratic way respects himself. And to self-respect he adds respect for the moral rights and feelings of others, for the sanctity of each individual personality.

THE CONSENT OF THE GOVERNED. Democratic processes also involve the assent of the people in matters of social control and the participation of all concerned in arriving at important decisions. This implies that all the people must have access to the facts which will help them to reach a wise decision.

THE APPEAL TO REASON. Peaceful and orderly methods of settling controversial questions are applied by a democracy to matters of national and international policy as well as to private disputes. The callous use of force and violence is rejected as unworthy of a civilized people.

THE PURSUIT OF HAPPINESS. Finally, democracy sets high value upon the at-

* *The Teacher of the Social Studies*, Twenty-third Yearbook (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1932), pp. 8-9. Reprinted by permission.

⁷ *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*; *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*; *Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*; and *Policies for Education in American Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1937, 1941, 1940, and 1946).

Social Justice and Social Activity

The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance, and acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions. Although individual differences in stature, ability, effort, personality, opportunity, income, frugality, prudence, economic well-being, and social status will always exist among human beings, the ideal of democracy is to minimize these differences, to guarantee life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness to each person, and to provide all with opportunity to achieve a happy and useful life. This ideal cannot be approached unless people become informed of the wide range of conditions under which men live, emotionally aroused about the undesirability of the wide disparities of human circumstance, and sympathetic toward the needs of others.

Social justice and concerted activity to correct unsatisfactory conditions presuppose the development of sympathy in human beings. Sympathy, based upon the capacity to imagine how other people feel in given situations, develops from the age of four on through the elementary school years. Genuine understanding of how other people feel usually stems from some personal experience in the same or a similar situation. Sympathetic behavior in nursery school children is revealed in many ways. Murphy's studies¹⁰ showed that three-year-olds generally, though not universally, responded to people whose distress involved bandages, blindness, injuries colored with Mercurochrome or iodine, scars or scratches; to deprivation of toys, food, or mother; to physical dilemmas, such as being caught in a play pen; to interference with activity, such as a child having to stay in bed; to attack by another child; to inability to do a job undertaken; to an accident; or to crying. Sympathetic responses on the part of young children, Murphy found, consisted of helping others; removing or attempting to remove the causes of distress; comforting others by pats, hugs, and kisses; punishing the cause of distress; protecting and defending the person in distress; asking questions to find the cause of distress; and suggesting or affecting solutions.

From these early beginnings, sympathetic behavior continues to develop if properly guided. Sympathy in its true form, involving an understanding of the situation, appears during the age period of seven to twelve years. However, it is only in its crudest form and lacks the fine sensitivity to situation found in the adolescent and the adult. This is the reason why the behavior of children in the elementary school

¹⁰ Arthur T. Jersild, *Child Psychology* (4th ed., New York. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), pp. 216-221. This is a review of Murphy's studies of sympathetic behavior in nursery school children.

may seem to be hard-boiled. Bullying and teasing younger children, animals, and servants are quite common at this age; so is teasing of the girls by the boys and jealous rivalry between the play groups of boys and girls.

Educational effort by the elementary school to develop in children a concern for social justice, social sensitivity, and social action must be geared to children's capacities as reflected in the developmental stages of those traits that have particular bearing upon these objectives. Although the concepts of social justice and social activity are broader than sympathetic behavior, yet sympathetic behavior is such an important factor in the broader area that the objectives of social justice and social activity cannot be achieved without the development of sympathetic behavior. The features that characterize the development of sympathy or sympathetic behavior in children are such as to place definite limitations upon the efforts of the elementary school. Genuine sympathy is usually based upon some personal experience in the same or a very similar situation. This factor in itself makes it difficult for the school to do as much as it would like to. The degree of sympathy of which elementary school pupils are capable is probably quite high; but it is not likely to be the considered, balanced type of sympathy one finds in the adult.

The fact that education for social justice and social activity is difficult and must be carried forward under limitations is no reason for ignoring it in the school program. In fact, most schools give considerable attention to these two objectives even though the objectives themselves may not be recognized as such or the educational activities identified clearly with them.

The personal experiences of children in school are utilized extensively to help pupils acquire an understanding of and sensitivity to social justice. Teachers keep the concepts of fair play, of courtesy, of kindness, of thoughtfulness, and of sharing prominent in all of children's activities. In primary grades the teachers see to it that children take turns in the use of toys, books, and playground equipment. By the time children get to the intermediate grades the idea of taking turns and of fairness in play has developed to the point that children are constantly alert to the rules of fair play and are likely to take severe measures against those who violate the commonly accepted codes of play and conduct. *Through group use of drinking fountains, eating in the lunchroom, passing in the halls, the distribution of books, papers, and crayons, or through sharing with or helping a pupil who has lost or forgotten to bring his book, the appropriate concepts are gradually instilled by acts that translate ideals into conduct.*

In the upper elementary grades (especially in eight-year schools) the children are mature enough to profit from excursions to places

reflecting unsatisfactory sanitary conditions, poor street drainage, or improper care of play areas. Such excursions help to sensitize children to the needs of others and frequently result in plans of action whereby the pupils actually engage in improving the conditions they observe. Other action projects may develop in connection with needs in and about the school building and grounds, the preparation of Christmas baskets for the poor, or Junior Red Cross activities.

Another important source of children's education in concepts of social justice is the content of the books children read. A study by Lane illustrates this source.¹¹ She analyzed fifteen basal and fifteen supplementary readers for the second grade to ascertain whether and to what extent the basic elements in the concept of citizenship were treated. Only those readers published in the year 1935 or later were used. That portion of her study that dealt with the elements of citizenship governing social relations revealed the items shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Elements of Citizenship Treated in the Content of Second-Grade Readers

<i>Elements of Citizenship</i>	<i>Frequency of Treatment</i>	
	<i>In 15 Basal Readers</i>	<i>In 15 Supplementary Readers</i>
1. Courtesy	149	150
2. Service	143	97
3. Co-operation	140	127
4. Helpfulness	129	130
5. Kindness	119	107
6. Friendliness	35	43
7. Obedience	26	18
8. Promptness	15	32
9. Sportsmanship	5	5
10. Generosity	0	5

Source: Goldie May Lane, "The Elements in the Concept of Citizenship Contained in Current Second Grade Readers" (Master's thesis, University of Texas Library, 1943).

If comparable analyses were available for readers and library books for other grade levels, the findings would undoubtedly be similar to those for second-grade readers. It seems clear that the authors of reading materials for children deliberately provide stories that bring the

¹¹ Goldie May Lane, "The Elements in the Concept of Citizenship Contained in Current Second Grade Readers" (Master's thesis, University of Texas Library, 1943).

child reader into frequent contact with vicarious experiences tending to instill ideals and traits basic to social justice.

In addition to the content in readers and library books one must recognize the role of books in history, geography, and biography, and the direct contribution of teachers through classroom discussion and pupil activities in units in the social studies and science.

Social Understanding, Critical Judgment, and Tolerance

The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes, has defenses against propaganda, and respects honest differences of opinion. An adult who participates effectively in the group activities of a society must have a deep and subtle understanding and appreciation of the patterns of organization through which people take group action and the more desirable way through which the most effective group action may be achieved. A knowledge of the present organization and functioning of society as well as constructive ideas for improving such organization and functioning is thus highly important. Such knowledge and understanding must be accompanied by skills in human relations, skills in critical thinking and judgment, and an attitude of tolerance for honest differences of opinion, coupled with the skills that enable one to behave tolerantly. These various factors are extremely important in a country in which the people are determined to make a success of self-government and to use democratic procedures in conducting the affairs of society. A high degree of proficiency in these realms is paramount in a democratic society but is difficult to obtain. Social education in its true form is not easy, and undoubtedly has not been achieved very satisfactorily in the past; yet it is an undertaking that must be done better in the future if true democracy is to be achieved.

Within the past few decades schools in this country have given more and more attention to these phases of social and civic education. Some of the directions this increased emphasis has taken have been considered in previous chapters in this text and in previous sections of this chapter. Special attention is called to the previous treatment of educating for satisfying human relations and selected portions of educating for economic efficiency. Let us turn, then, to other phases of the elementary school program that are peculiarly pertinent to the heading of this section.

Learning about the nature of society and how it functions and acquiring proficiency in functioning in and through groups and organizations of various kinds constitute an important phase of children's education. Schools promote children's development through several

channels. The Educational Policies Commission identified six areas of citizenship education: the course of study, the teaching methods, the student life, community activities, school administration, and evaluation of results.¹² Only the first two of these areas will be discussed at this point. Co-curricular activities, particularly the student council, assembly programs, and the school safety patrol, which have been mentioned frequently in preceding chapters, are important phases of a school's program in social and civic education. The same may be said about community activities, which have also been discussed at length in other chapters. Let us turn, then, to the course of study and teaching methods.

A course of study in the social studies is a teachers' guide to the instructional program in the social studies. The instructional program, which consists of all the teacher and pupil activities that find a place in the ongoing work of the school, is much broader than a course of study. It would be difficult to prepare (and even more difficult to use because of its size) a course of study that would be so inclusive as to deal with every detail of teaching. It is for this reason that the present discussion is focused upon the course of study rather than upon the instructional program.

The course of study in the social studies is usually considered as the guide to that portion of the school program that carries the major instructional burden for children's social and citizenship education. In some schools the social studies consist of separate courses in history, geography, and civics. In other schools the social studies consist of a series of topics or problems in the study of which materials from history, geography, civics, sociology, economics, and anthropology have been merged so that content from each of these separate disciplines may be utilized whenever it is pertinent to the study or solution of a problem. The latter type of course has been called "unified" or "fused" or "integrated" social studies.

In trying to discover what the schools are doing in the social studies one should examine the objectives for instruction in the social studies, the outline of topics or problems that compose the focal points around which the instruction is carried forward, the textbooks and other reading materials made available to the children, and teaching methods.

Objectives for the separate course in history in the middle grades were set forth by Kelty as follows: (1) a lasting interest in history; (2) the ability "to comprehend a coherent narrative of successive events in a unit movement"; (3) ability to visualize clearly the overt aspects

¹² *Learning the Ways of Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940), p. 465.

of the historical scene; (4) understanding of vocabulary terms and of large movements as a whole; (5) information about the most important persons, places, and dates; (6) the ability to use books; (7) skills in picture and map interpretation and in making maps; and (8) simple reasoning processes in history.¹³

The distinct contributions of geography to the American way of life are suggested in the stated objectives of a series of geography texts.

1. Development of ability to think and reason geographically.
2. Knowledge of geographic facts as a basis for understanding the inter-action of man and his environment.
3. Ability to use skills, tools, and facts in developing major understandings.
4. Appreciation of problems, achievements, and future possibilities of all peoples.
5. Understanding of the value and need for conservation of resources.¹⁴

The present trend in the teaching of history and geography is away from teaching them as separate subjects. If one is to learn to live with others effectively, it is necessary to know something of geographic principles, concepts, and facts, as well as ways man in years past has solved his problems of living with others. Teaching children to do historical and geographical thinking are becoming objectives of the social studies.

Instruction in the social studies aims to develop responsible citizens who can and will participate intelligently in solving their own human relations problems. More specifically, this means that the social studies should help boys and girls to acquire

1. Accurate knowledge of man and society.
2. Informed insight into man and society.
3. Those skills essential to acquiring knowledge and insight.
4. Loyalty to those social ideals that forward the dignity of individual men and the brotherhood of all men.
5. Ability to apply knowledge, insight, skill, and loyalty to daily living.¹⁵

The outline of topics or problems that comprise the course of study in the social studies differs widely in school systems in the United States. Schools which teach the separate courses in history and geography frequently follow the outline of content found in textbooks in history and geography. An examination of recently published textbooks

¹³ Mary G. Kelly, *Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades* (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936), pp. 7-8.

¹⁴ Russell Smith and Frank E. Sorenson, *Teaching Procedures and Key to Activities for Our Neighbors at Home*, in "Our Neighbors Geographies Series" (Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1948), p. 9. Copyright, 1948. Reprinted by permission.

¹⁵ Ralph C. Preston, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1950), pp. 15-17.

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¹²*Learning the Ways of Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940), p. 465.

in these subjects will reveal the nature and sequence of the major headings around which the content is organized. Schools which use the "fused" or "integrated" plan for the social studies program use a variety of topics or units. The course of study for Kalamazoo recommends the following topics or "themes."

Kindergarten	Living Together in a New Environment
Grade One	Living Together in School and in the Family
Grade Two	Living Together in Our Neighborhood Community
Grade Three	Living Together in Kalamazoo and Our Neighboring Communities
Grade Four	Living Together in Michigan and Exploring Our Country and the Global World
Grade Five	Living Together in the United States: Its Early History and Present Day Geography
Grade Six	Living Together with Our Neighbors in the Americas
Grade Seven	Living Together with Our World Neighbors across the Seas
Grade Eight	Living Together in the United States: The Origin and Growth of Our Democracy ¹⁸

[Current events are emphasized in all grades.]

The course of study in social studies for the elementary schools of the state of Oregon is organized around "Areas of Interest." The outline for the first four grades is as follows:

SIX-YEAR-OLDS. GRADE ONE

- I. Living Together in Home and School
 - A. Getting acquainted at school
 1. Working together
 2. Playing together
 - B. A happy home
 1. How members of a family help each other
 2. Good times together
- II. Living Together on the Farm and in the City
 - A. A typical farm home
 1. Work and play on the farm
 2. Kinds of farms
 - B. Typical city home
 1. Work and play in the city
 2. Kinds of homes
 - C. Interdependence of farm and city
 1. Contribution of farm activities to city life
 2. Contribution of city activities to farm life

¹⁸ Julian C. Aldrich (ed.), *Social Studies for Young Adolescents, Programs for Grades Seven, Eight and Nine, Curriculum Series Number Six* (Washington National Council for the Social Studies, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1951), p. 21. Reprinted by permission.

SEVEN-YEAR-OLDS. GRADE TWO

I. *The Components of a Good Community*

- A. The workers and their contributions
 - 1. How the community is housed
 - 2. How the community is clothed
 - 3. How the community is fed
 - 4. Interdependence of farm and city
- B. Interdependence of people within the community for safe happy living and recreation
 - 1. Policeman's contribution
 - 2. Fireman's contribution
 - 3. Garbageman's contribution
 - 4. Doctor's and nurse's contributions
 - 5. School's contribution
 - 6. Recreational facilities' contribution
 - 7. Civic buildings' contribution

II. Transportation and Communication in the Community

EIGHT-YEAR-OLDS. GRADE THREE

I. The Community—How People Live and Work Together for the General Welfare

- A. How does plant life help people in the community and how it is protected?
- B. How does animal life help people in the community and how it is protected?
- C. How does the community provide for transportation and communication?
- D. How are city and country communities dependent on each other?

II. The Earth—How People in a Community Use the Natural Resources of the Earth

- A. How are soil and water important to people?
- B. How are plants and animals important to people?
- C. How may the conservation of natural resources effect a better way of living?

III. Oregon—How Have People Changed Oregon?

- A. How did the Indians live and work together in their community?
- B. How did the early pioneers live and work together?
- C. How do we live and work together in Oregon today?

NINE-YEAR-OLDS. GRADE FOUR

I. What Man Has Learned about the Earth

- A. The earth's place in the universe
- B. What the earth is like
- C. Maps and globes help us to understand our earth

II. How Man Has Learned to Live with Others

- A. How man's way of living has been influenced by geographical factors
- B. How man has learned to use the resources to change his environment
- C. How communities are alike and how they are different

III. How Man Has Learned to Live in the World

- A. All men learn to live in and to use their environment
- B. Similar communities are found throughout the world
- C. People in various parts are alike in some ways and different in others¹⁷

The course of study for the elementary schools of the city of Philadelphia recommends the following units.

KINDERGARTEN AND GRADE ONE—LIVING AT HOME AND IN SCHOOL

Having Fun Together	Exploring Our School
My Home	Caring for Our Pets
How Mother Helps Us	When Company Comes
How Can We Help at Home?	Let's Be Safe
People Who Help Us at School	Let's Get Ready for Spring, Winter, Summer, Fall
Caring for Ourselves	

GRADE TWO—LIVING IN THE NEIGHBORHOOD

Let's Be Good Neighbors	Helpers Who Come to Our Door
How Do We Have Fun in Our Neighborhood?	Signs in Our Neighborhood
Many People Help Us in Our Neighborhood	Finding Out about Our Neighborhood
Plants and Animals Live in Our Neighborhood Too	Celebrating Holidays in Our Neighborhood
	Workers for Health and Safety
	How Can My Family Help My Neighbors?

GRADE THREE—THE WIDER COMMUNITY

We Need the Farmer	Wires and Pipes Join My House to the World
Food from the Sea	Plants and Animals Give Us Many Things
Many People Help to Build Our Homes	People Work and Play Together in Our Community
How Do We Get Our Clothes?	
Where Does Our Grocer Get His Products?	

¹⁷ *Guide to Elementary Education in Oregon* (Salem, Ore.: Department of Education, Primary Division, 1949), pp. 3, 23, 37; *Guide to Elementary Education in Oregon* (Salem, Ore.: Department of Education, Intermediate Division, 1949), p. 5. Reprinted by permission.

GRADE FOUR—LIVING IN OUR CITY

Everyone Shares in City Planning	How Do Philadelphians Earn a Living?
Having Fun in Philadelphia	Philadelphia—Birthplace of Our Nation
Highways, Waterways, and Airways into Philadelphia	Being Good Neighbors in Philadelphia
How Philadelphians Are Fed	Going to School in Our City
The Communities in Our City	

GRADE FIVE—LIFE IN OUR STATE AND NATION

People in Pennsylvania Live in Big Cities, in Small Towns and on Farms	The Sections of Our Nation Are Independent
Pennsylvania Today and in Colonial Times	Life in American River Valleys
How Inventions Have Changed American Life	Let's Make Democracy Work
The United States—A Nation of Neighbors from All Parts of the World	Spending a Vacation in the United States
	Our Nation's Natural Resources Help the World

GRADE SIX—LIVING IN THE WORLD

Nations Exchange Goods and Ideas	The Airplane Brings People Closer Together
People Need Houses the World Over	Protecting and Sharing the World's Treasures
The United Nations Builds Its First Home	We Are a World Family
Are We Good World Neighbors?	Our Debt to the Past
	People Everywhere Celebrate Holidays ¹⁸

Although the three outlines that have been quoted differ in many respects, certain common features are evident. In the first grade all of them deal with elements of group life that are immediate to the child's personal experiences and within his sphere of comprehension. This emphasis is illustrated by the units on the school, the home, and features of the neighborhood. As the children get older they are introduced to units that carry them into an ever widening sphere—the community, the state, the nation, and other countries. Another common feature is the fusion of content from the several fields of history, geography, sociology, civics, and economics. A third common feature is the emphasis on

¹⁸ *Toward Social Competence: A Guide to the Teaching of Social Studies in the Elementary Schools* (Philadelphia: Philadelphia Public Schools, Curriculum Office, 1950), pp. 21, 43, 67, 91, 111, 113. Reprinted by permission.

community workers (the postman, the milkman, and others), the agencies that serve us (the post office and the library, for example), and the industries through which our needs are met (the dairy, the bakery, the farm). Throughout these units one can recognize the attention given to helping children acquire an understanding of the nature of society and how it functions, and proficiency in functioning in and through organizations of various kinds.

The trend in social-studies instruction that has brought about the "fused" or "integrated" units has been accompanied by the publication of textbooks in which the authors have made a special effort to help children understand the nature of society and how it functions. A series of social-studies texts that illustrates this trend is the "Winston Social Studies Series" consisting of *Nancy's World, Tom's Town, and Other Places* for primary grades; and *Toward Better Living, Toward Modern America, and Living in Latin America* for intermediate grades.²⁹ Ginn and Company published the "Tiegs-Adams Social Studies Series," which aims to integrate geography, history, and civics, and to help the pupil understand the democratic way of living. The first eight titles in the series are *Stories about Linda and Lee, Stories about Sally, Your Town and Mine, Your People and Mine, Your Country and Mine, Your World and Mine, Your Country and the World, and Your Country's Story*.³⁰

Other publishers have produced other books that represent the same general purposes in the selection and organization of content. To the lists of basic texts in the social studies must be added the many supplementary books and pamphlets and the selections in readers that are now available in elementary school libraries and that teachers may utilize in broadening and enriching the children's reading in connection with the different units.

The fourth aspect of social studies to be treated is methods of teaching. Since later chapters of this book deal at some length with teaching methods, attention is directed at this point only to a few selected features of method that are especially pertinent to the heading of this section. Method and content are so closely associated that at times it is difficult to distinguish one from the other. Some readers may feel that the paragraphs that follow should be classified as treatment of content rather than of method. At any rate, the issue to be discussed is the development of skills in critical thinking and judgment.

Critical thinking has been accepted for a long time as a goal of instruction in the social studies, but teaching effort in this regard is not limited to the social studies. The need for critical thinking is equally

important in the fields of arithmetic, science, and consumer economics. Teachers have developed methods of dealing with content and pupil activities in all these fields in such ways as to provide pupils with instruction and practice in the habits and procedures essential for critical thinking and judgment. In everyday life this need arises in social and civic affairs, in listening to the radio, and in reading the newspapers. In 1953 the National Council for the Social Studies devoted a portion of its twenty-fourth yearbook to critical thinking and its use in problem solving. The authors of the chapter, referring to John Dewey's "states of thinking," analyze the process of critical thinking as follows.

1. Stating the exact nature of the problem to be solved.
2. Making suggestions of what might be done.
3. Gathering information which these various suggestions indicate is needed.
4. Checking the original suggestions against the facts that have been gathered, with possible inclusion of new suggestions.
5. Testing the suggestions by actual or imaginative action.²¹

The units, topics, or problems in the social studies lend themselves particularly well to types of pupil activities that involve the use of the steps and the skills in critical thinking. Many of these pupil activities involve the finding of information in books, periodicals, and newspapers. Certain specialized reading skills are thus necessary.²² These reading skills may be developed during the reading period in connection with social-studies activities or in connection with special lessons on how to read a newspaper. In recent years a number of school systems have developed special instructional units on how to read a newspaper. Helpful suggestions on such a unit may be obtained from "How to Use Daily Newspapers," one of the "How to Do It Series" published by the National Council for the Social Studies.²³ Special instruction and practice in critical appraisal of radio and television programs and advertising are also provided in some schools. All these efforts are bound to help children achieve the greater proficiency in critical thinking and judgment so essential in a democratic society.

Among the elements of teaching method that are especially relevant to the development of an understanding of the nature of society

²¹ Helen McCracken Carpenter (ed.), *Skills in the Social Studies*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1953), Chap. 3. Reprinted by permission.

²² David H. Russell, *Children Learn to Read* (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1949), Chap. II.

²³ Howard H. Cummings, "How to Use Daily Newspapers," in "How to Do It Series" (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1949).

and how it functions and the acquisition of skill in group relations and in critical thinking, special mention should be made of children's classroom experiences in a democracy. Unless democratic practices, cooperative teacher-pupil planning, and pupil participation in classroom management prevail in the daily experiences of children and are used as tangible means of interpreting the broader, the more remote, and the less concrete things, instructional effort is likely to leave children in the realm of intellectual verbalism, which has little influence on behavior.

Conservation

The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources. Since our national life and culture and, indeed, our very existence depend upon the availability of essential natural resources and the use made of them, it becomes apparent that any program of citizenship education must make children aware of the country's and the world's natural resources, understand the relation between natural resources and the welfare of mankind, develop emotionalized attitudes favorable to the conservation of natural resources, and promote group policies and programs of action for the conservation and restoration of natural resources.

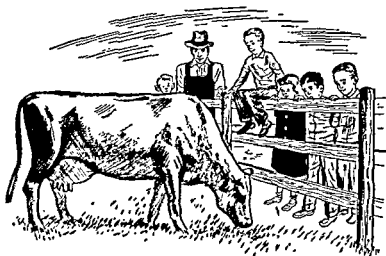
Since 1929, at least eight states—Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin—have passed legislation requiring school instruction in natural resources. The assumption is that teaching elementary school children the conservation and preservation of natural resources will help to eliminate harmful practices.²⁴ In response to the national interest in conservation education the United States Office of Education has issued several bulletins²⁵ for the use of the schools in teaching the importance of conservation, and the American Association of School Administrators devoted one of its recent yearbooks²⁶ to this subject.

²⁴ *Large Was Our Bounty*, Yearbook, 1948 (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1948), pp. 126-127.

²⁵ Effie G. Bathurst, *Conservation Excursions*, Bulletin No. 13 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1939); *Curriculum Content in Conservation for Elementary Schools*, Bulletin No. 14 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1939); *Helps for Teachers of Geography and Conservation*, Circular 277 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1950); Harlene Hatcher, *Better Living through Wise Use of Resources*, Bulletin No. 15 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1950).

²⁶ *Conservation Education in American Schools*, Twenty-ninth Yearbook (Washington: American Association of School Administrators, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1951).

Many scientific discoveries are two-edged swords. They may be used to injure or destroy people as well as to improve their welfare. The educational task is therefore twofold. Children should have a chance to acquire a broad background of information, understanding,



"When she lies down, do you think she puts her front feet or her back feet down first?"

and attitudes regarding science in the many phases of everyday life. Children should also become imbued with a conviction that the function of science is to improve the welfare of society and not to destroy it. Scientific advance must be evaluated in terms of its contribution to the general welfare, and social policies must be directed toward that end.

Science has been taught in the high schools of this country for more than half a century, but it is only within the past quarter of a century that science teaching has found its way into the elementary schools. Science may be thought of in the broad sense as consisting of the application of scientific methods of study and research to any field of knowledge. In this sense there are the scientific aspects of economics, sociology, geography, history, and political science as well as the scientific aspects of physics, chemistry, geology, biology, zoology, botany, and astronomy. The dictionary defines "science" as (1) "knowledge, as of general truths or particular facts, obtained and shown to be correct by accurate observation and thinking"; or (2) "knowledge coordinated, arranged, and systematized with reference to

general truths or laws; especially classified knowledge in reference to the physical world." In accord with this broader concept of science educators have employed scientific methods in all the fields of study. In the social studies, for example, the content included in textbooks and courses of study is derived in large measure from careful study and research, and the emphasis in teaching is to encourage children to apply the best available knowledge in the solution of problems.

Science in the narrower sense deals with the physical world and is represented in school programs by courses in general science, agriculture, home economics, chemistry, physics, zoology, botany, and biology. It is in terms of this narrower concept of science that the statement was made in the preceding paragraph that science teaching had found its way into elementary schools only within the past quarter of a century.

In elementary schools the common practice is to offer science (in the narrower sense) as general science; that is, a broad cross section of all phases of science that come within the child's experience. The specialized courses are offered only at the high school level. A very acceptable statement of objectives for science teaching developed by Burnett reads as follows:

Developing scientific-mindedness, by helping children to

- Recognize that science is potentially good or bad
- Recognize the universality of cause-and-effect relationships
- Understand the limitations of scientific methods when applied to social problems
- Recognize the importance of planning on complex issues
- See the strong resemblance between scientific and democratic faiths and to recognize among the requirements of freedom, a search for truth, and an allegiance to cooperative procedures
- Recognize the approximate nature of scientifically determined truth
- Recognize his personal bias and to consider it in making judgments
- Recognize the meaning and bases of authority
- Acquire a faith in and allegiance to the scientific method

Developing critical attitudes, by helping children to

- Discover problems
- Develop hypotheses
- Gain in ability to secure relevant and authoritative data
- Secure experimental data (where possible)
- Compare the validity of cooperative attacks on problems as against individual attacks
- Communicate effectively and cogently both orally and in writing
- Understand critically the several historical and contemporary conceptions of truth and methods of formal inquiry

Helping the child to interpret his expanding environment

- Contributing to increased health and safety
- Contributing to a basis in reality for other schoolwork
- Contributing to effective social learnings²⁸

Similar statements of objectives may be found in other recent texts on teaching science in the elementary school.²⁹

On the assumption that content in health education is science content, some schools include health instruction as part of the science course; others have separate courses in health and elementary science. Illustrative of the latter type of arrangement is the schedule of units in elementary science from Kansas City, Missouri, quoted below.

KINDERGARTEN

- UNIT I Animals in the Environment
- UNIT II Plants
- UNIT III Things That Go
- UNIT IV Weather Changes

GRADE I

- UNIT I Seasonal Changes in Plants and Animals
- UNIT II Animals on the Farm
- UNIT III The Sun
- UNIT IV Air and Water
- UNIT V Pets
- UNIT VI Tools

GRADE II

- UNIT I Birds
- UNIT II Weather
- UNIT III Plants Make Plants like Themselves
- UNIT IV Magnets
- UNIT V An Aquarium
- UNIT VI Color and Its Uses

GRADE III

- UNIT I How Animals Protect Themselves and Get Their Food
- UNIT II Insects
- UNIT III Earth and Sky
- UNIT IV Simple Machines
- UNIT V Living and Non-Living Things
- UNIT VI Collection of Rocks

²⁸ Adapted from Chap. 3 of R. Will Burnett, *Teaching Science in the Elementary School* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1953).

²⁹ Glen O. Blough and Albert J. Huggett, *Elementary School Science and How to Teach It* (New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1951), Chap. 2, Harrington Wells, *Elementary Science Education in American Public Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951), p. 43, *Science for Today's Children*, Thirty-second Yearbook (Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association of the United States, 1953), pp. 22, 40, 155.

GRADE IV

- UNIT I Main Animal Groups
- UNIT II Plants Respond to Their Environment
- UNIT III Properties and Uses of Air and Water
- UNIT IV Heat and Light
- UNIT V Animals Respond to Their Environment
- UNIT VI Magnets

GRADE V

- UNIT I Birds
- UNIT II Insects
- UNIT III The Solar System
- UNIT IV Plant Propagation
- UNIT V Machines
- UNIT VI Rocks and Minerals

GRADE VI

- UNIT I Living Things of Long Ago
- UNIT II Trees and Shrubs
- UNIT III Sound
- UNIT IV Electricity
- UNIT V Weather
- UNIT VI Light

GRADE VII

- UNIT I Conservation
- UNIT II Relation of Plants and Animals to Their Environment
- UNIT III The Universe
- UNIT IV Chemical Changes
- UNIT V Plants and Animals in the Community
- UNIT VI Heating Our Homes and Schools

GRADE VIII

- UNIT I Life Processes
- UNIT II Improvements in Plants and Animals
- UNIT III Rocks and Fossils
- UNIT IV Energy-Producing Resources
- UNIT V Science and the Air Age
- UNIT VI New Materials Developed by Science³⁰

World Citizenship

The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community. World events during the past decade have convinced many that the interdependence of nations and the need for international

³⁰ *Science Experiences in the Elementary School*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 82 (Kansas City, Mo.: Public Schools, May, 1952), pp. 10-12. Reprinted by permission.

understanding and cooperation are not only necessary for harmonious living but possibly essential for survival. With a world divided, not only physically but intellectually as well, it seems that our educational institutions are faced with a stern challenge. The "battle for men's minds" may very well be the deciding factor in years to come.

Among educational leaders in the United States a recognition of the need for international cooperation has resulted in several emphases in elementary school programs. More attention is being given to world geography, the economic interdependence of nations, and the effects that the swifter means of ocean and air travel have had in bringing all peoples of the world closer together. The special emphases on inter-American and intercultural education have had their repercussions in the social-studies programs in elementary schools.³¹ The general decline of provincial and highly nationalistic attitudes on the part of the public at large is making it easier for the schools to do a more constructive job of teaching world-mindedness.

What are the essential marks, or qualities, of the world-minded American? This question was put to some three hundred leaders of wide experience in world affairs—public officials, members of Congress, military leaders, journalists, business executives, labor leaders, educators, and heads of national organizations—in a letter of inquiry from the chairman of the National Education Associations' Committee of International Relations. After the list of answers was subjected to criticisms and suggestions from many persons, leading to a succession of revisions, "ten marks of the world-minded American" were agreed upon. The list is as follows:

I

The world-minded American realizes that civilization may be imperiled by another war.

II

The world-minded American wants a world at peace in which liberty and justice are assured for all.

III

The world-minded American knows that nothing in human nature makes war inevitable.

³¹ For an excellent discussion of the ways in which schools can effect a change in intercultural attitudes, the reader is referred to W. Van Til and G. W. Dene-mark, "Intercultural Education," Chap. 2 in *Review of Educational Research*, 20 (1950), 274-286. (Contains a ninety-nine-item bibliography.)

IV

The world-minded American believes that education can become a powerful force for achieving international understanding and world peace.

V

The world-minded American knows and understands how people in other lands live and recognizes the common humanity which underlies all differences of culture.

VI

The world-minded American knows that unlimited national sovereignty is a threat to world peace and that nations must cooperate to achieve peace and human progress.

VII

The world-minded American knows that modern technology holds promise of solving the problem of economic security and that international cooperation can contribute to the increase of well-being for all men.

VIII

The world-minded American has a deep concern for the well-being of humanity.

IX

The world-minded American has a continuing interest in world affairs and he devotes himself seriously to the analysis of international problems with all the skill and judgment he can command.

X

The world-minded American acts to help bring about a world at peace in which liberty and justice are assured for all.²²

These ten marks of the world-minded American are the goal of education for international understanding toward which all teachers should direct their attention. Chapter 5 of the committee's report suggests learning experiences appropriate to each age level.

²² The Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association of the United States, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the National Council for the Social Studies, *Education for International Understanding in American Schools* (Washington, 1948), pp. 11-12. Reprinted by permission.

Law Observance

The educated citizen respects the law. Obedience to constituted authority, as manifested in law, is a necessary element in a well-ordered society. Many people do not realize that laws are commonly agreed upon rules of conduct that set forth the appropriate procedures for ensuring the greatest good to the greatest number. Laws are the instruments that guarantee individual freedom within the framework of the general welfare. Disobedience and disrespect for law are symptoms either of indifference to the welfare of others or of distrust of democratic processes.

There is much need in the United States for more effective education in law observance and in understanding the function of laws in terms of individual and group welfare. Children need to understand the nature of law and its role in human affairs, to develop habits of willing and intelligent obedience to laws, and to acquire an attitude of respect for law and an appreciation of the inherent dignity of the law-abiding citizen.

Children's education in law observance begins during the preschool years and continues throughout the school-age period and in adult life. The simpler elements of education in law observance take place in the primary grades through the many informal activities that comprise group life in the classroom and in the larger environment of the school building and grounds. These activities have been discussed several times in previous chapters so that further description should be unnecessary. Cooperative teacher-pupil planning and having children develop with the teacher the modes of conduct to be followed in the various school situations are particularly helpful in getting children to understand what is meant by common agreements (laws) and to acquire the habits and attitudes associated with law observance.

In the intermediate and upper grades the elementary approaches used in the primary grades are continued on a more mature level as reflected in the student council, the safety patrol, and other features of pupil participation in school management. These "experiences in living at school" are supplemented in the intermediate and upper grades with instruction in the social studies, courses in civics in grade seven or eight, and pupil participation in community-improvement projects.

Economic Literacy

The educated citizen is economically literate. Economic literacy is so broad in scope that one must be careful not to undertake an edu-

cational task that is too involved for children in the elementary school. The following quotation identifies fairly well the characteristics of economic literacy that seem appropriate for the elementary school to consider.

The person who is economically literate has found out by direct or vicarious experience, that wealth is produced by work; that goods and services usually vary greatly in quality; that some advertising is truthful, some false, and all of it interested first of all in selling goods, services, or ideas; that collective expenditures, in cooperatives or in public finance, for example, may be either good or bad depending on the attendant circumstances; that getting something for nothing, through gambling in any of its forms, always means that the other fellow gets nothing for something; that every dollar spent is an economic ballot voting for necessities or for trash; that war is uneconomic because it uses natural resources to destroy human resources; and that individual economic advancement through deceit or exploitation of others is unworthy of an honest man.²²

The channels most commonly used in elementary schools to promote economic literacy in children are (1) the functional applications of arithmetic to personal budgets, consumer buying, loans and discounts, and civic problems relating to taxation, public health, and public education; (2) the functional applications of science to the activities of everyday living; (3) instruction in the social studies; and (4) conservation education.

Political Citizenship

The educated citizen accepts his civic duties. This chapter and the three preceding ones have called attention to the fact that effective education must eventuate in action guided by the best available knowledge and the attitudes and ideals associated with the general welfare. If society at large and the individuals who comprise it are to benefit from the accumulating knowledge in all the fields, there must be many forms of civic action at local, state, national, and international levels. Civic action may be thought of as the cooperative group method of dealing with problems beyond the reach, ability, or jurisdiction of the individuals. Some civic action is informal, while some is formal or results in formal procedures such as decisions made at the polls, by the city council, or by legislatures. Whether individuals accept their civic duties is the ultimate proof of the effectiveness of the program for citizenship education.

²² *Policies for Education in American Democracy* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1946), p. 247. Reprinted by permission.

That citizenship education has not been effective in the past is evidenced by the fact that thirty million qualified voters do not exercise their franchise even in the most exciting elections and by the fact that so many persons are indifferent or antisocial toward the affairs of local communities. Current attitudes toward the peoples of other lands and the resulting national policies in foreign affairs further illustrate the need for a wider education that will produce more intelligent and constructive citizens. The increasing number of articles and books dealing with the problem is evidence of a growing concern with it.²⁴

Elementary schools endeavor to make many contributions toward children's proficiency in political citizenship. Instruction in language arts, social studies, science, arithmetic, and the fine arts provides a background of information and skills. Fundamental skills, attitudes, and ideals, developed through the educational efforts directed toward satisfying human relations and economic efficiency, are supplemented by programs frankly imitative of the forms of group activity found in adult life. The experience and training obtained in home-room organizations and the student council have their counterparts in local service clubs, local caucuses, local and state or national elections, and local and state government. At election time some schools sponsor mock elections in which individual pupils campaign for offices, rallies are held, and finally the election. Such activities provide useful experience and training for later political citizenship.

Devotion to Democracy

The educated person acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals. The democratic pattern has been acknowledged as the best organization for society by many nations of the world. Democracy, however, is not something one inherits or achieves without effort. Democracy in its present and still imperfect form is the product of hundreds of years of strife, blood, and toil of many peoples in all parts of the world. If the ideal of democracy is to be preserved in the United States and elsewhere and if its practices are to be improved with each new generation, it will be only through conscious effort and persistent vigilance. People must be educated to understand, to believe in, and

²⁴Hollis L. Caswell and R. W. Smith, *How Can Our Schools Best Promote Democracy?* (New York: Town Hall, Inc., 1953); Edgar Dale and Robert Sampson, *Citizenship Practices in Ohio Schools* (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, Ohio State University, 1951), *Making Better Citizens: A Program for the Schools of America*, Civic Education Project (Cambridge, Mass.: The Foundation, 1953), Eldon G. Wheeler and D. F. Showalter, *Better Teaching and Better Learning in the Social Studies*, Kansas Study of Education for Citizenship (Manhattan, Kan.: Kansas State College Press, 1953), William Heard Kilpatrick, "Better Education for Citizenship," *Educational Forum*, 15 (May, 1951), 419-426.

to practice democracy. Thus the responsibility of the school in educating for democracy is clear.³⁵

In recent years schools in all parts of the country have given special attention to education for democracy. Textbooks and library books have been written; courses of study, curriculum bulletins, and guides for teachers have been prepared for the purpose of improving teaching in this area. An example of a series of textbooks is the "Democracy Series" with the following titles for use in the first eight grades: *School Friends*, *Let's Take Turns*, *Enjoying Our Land*, *Your Land and Mine*, *Toward Freedom*, *Pioneering in Democracy*, *The Way of Democracy*, *The Growth of Democracy*, and *Working for Democracy*.³⁶ *You and Democracy* is an excellent example of a simple, attractive library book that appeals to intermediate grade children.³⁷ Examples of courses of study that incorporate the teaching of democracy into the various fields of the curriculum are *Teaching and Protecting Our American Ideals*³⁸ and *How We Teach Citizenship Through the Social Studies*.³⁹ Illustrative of separate courses of study are *I Live in a Democracy*⁴⁰ and *Techniques Useful in Citizenship Education*.⁴¹ Several groups have published useful treatises as a result of extensive studies of the teaching of citizenship in the schools. Only two of the many available examples are cited here.⁴² Another indication of the increasing emphasis on democracy in education is that a national organization devoted one of its yearbooks to the topic.⁴³

Democracy must be both caught and taught. At the elementary school level, democracy is learned best if all phases of "life at school" are carried forward in accordance with good democratic ideals and procedures. The adage that "we learn what we live and we live what we learn" is particularly applicable in our efforts to educate children for effective living in a democratic society. A few of the most fruitful

³⁵ George S. Counts, *Education and American Civilization* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

³⁶ Prudence Cutright and W. W. Charters, eds. (rev. eds.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951).

³⁷ Dorothy Gordon, *You and Democracy* (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1951).

³⁸ *A Course of Study for Social Living and Language Arts* (Eugene, Ore.: Public Schools, 1950).

³⁹ Seattle: Public Schools, Board of Directors, 1952.

⁴⁰ Grades five through eight. Oklahoma City, Okla.: Public Schools, 1952.

⁴¹ Bulletin No. 55 (Hartford, Conn.: State Department of Education, 1952).

⁴² Standley E. Dunond, *Schools and the Development of Good Citizens*, Final Report, Citizenship Education Study (Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1953); R. H. Knapp (ed.), *Learning the Ways of Democracy in Nebraska's Schools* (Lincoln, Neb.: Nebraska Cooperative School Study Council, University of Nebraska, 1951).

⁴³ Hilda Taba and William Van Til, *Democratic Human Relations*, Sixteenth Yearbook (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, a Department of the National Association of Education of the United States, 1945).

activities are (1) pupils and teachers planning cooperatively; (2) pupils assuming responsibility for the care, arrangement, and use of the room, all supplies, and playground equipment; (3) pupil leaders and chairmen, chosen democratically, carrying on much of the group work; (4)



"We are going to do things democratically this year. I'll tell you what to do first."

pupils maintaining a truly pupil-directed room club; (5) pupils learning through reading, listening to others, and experimenting with how democratic practices have evolved and have come to be the best way we know to live together happily and effectively. Every classroom should be a living example of American democratic ideals in action. This is basic to developing good citizens of America and of the world.

Chapter Summary

The purposes of this chapter were (1) to define society, (2) to distinguish between democratic and totalitarian societies, (3) to describe the essential features of a democracy, (4) to clarify the meaning of the several subheadings under which one may detail the broader field of educating for civic responsibility, and (5) to describe the different procedures used by elementary schools in helping children to achieve civic responsibility. In general, schools in this country have always been concerned with the objectives of civic responsibility. To some extent during Colonial days but more specifically after independent nationhood was achieved, one of the chief functions of public schools was

citizenship education. In the early days instruction in reading, arithmetic, and geography was viewed as having direct bearing on citizenship education. Even today instruction dealing more specifically with the objectives of self-realization, human relations, and vocational efficiency provides the essential background of information, skills, attitudes, and ideals in terms of which proficiency in civic affairs may be achieved.

The job of making democracy function at increasingly higher levels becomes more complex and more difficult as society becomes more complex and as the interdependence of nations increases. The fact that the older methods of educating for civic responsibilities are no longer adequate is being recognized by the schools and, as a result, new emphases and new procedures are being developed. Some of these have been touched upon in the descriptive material presented in the chapter. Perhaps the most important new trend is the realistic approach using all phases of "life at school" as channels for educating children for civic participation.

The following major ideas were developed in this chapter.

1. Each member of a social group must perform his role in the group; otherwise the group disintegrates or operates at reduced efficiency.

2. Democracy has been acknowledged as the best broad pattern of organization for society by many of the nations of the world.

3. Democracy, as we know it today, is the current status of a form of social organization resulting from a long period of deliberate effort by peoples in many parts of the world.

4. The true ideal of democracy is a goal for the future and implies a much higher form of social organization than the present form of democracy.

5. Faith in democracy as the most desirable form of society and proficiency in functioning democratically are learned. They are not inherited characteristics.

6. Elementary schools use a wide variety of activities to promote children's education for civic responsibility.

7. At the elementary school level the essential features of effective civic participation in a democratic society are caught, taught, and learned best if all phases of "life at school" are lived in accordance with sound democratic ideals and procedures.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Goetz, Delia. *World Understanding Begins with Children*. Bulletin No. 17. Washington: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1949.

2. *Learning World Goodwill in the Elementary School*. Twenty-fifth Yearbook. Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association of the United States, 1946. Chapter by Agnes Snyder, "Attitudes of Goodwill Can Be Built in Elementary School Living."
3. Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Chap. 2, "Democratic Values and Behavior in the Social Studies."
4. Mitten, Betty L., and Dale B. Harris, "The Development of Responsibility in Children," *Elementary School Journal*, 54 (January, 1954), 268-277.
5. Saucier, W. A. *Theory and Practice in Elementary School* (rev. ed.). New York: The Macmillan Co., 1951. Chap. 3, "Democracy and Education."

Suggested Student Activities

1. Read the selections in several recently published basal and supplementary readers to determine which have special merit in helping children to develop along one or more of the lines implied by the list of objectives for civic responsibility. What are the special elements relating to citizenship education?

2. Visit an elementary school and make a list of the activities that the school appears to be using deliberately for citizenship education. Also make a list of the activities whose usefulness for citizenship education could be augmented if the school staff were more alert to their possibilities.

3. Consult the pamphlet entitled *102 Motion Pictures on Democracy* (*Bulletin* 1950, No. 1; Washington: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950). View and discuss at least one of these films.

4. Refer to Chapter I and discuss examples of democratic practices described for the various schools.

5. See and discuss the film *The Elementary School*, Part III (The Virginia Department of Education, Richmond, 1953). It is a 20-minute B&W or colored film that shows opportunities for children to develop a knowledge of the physical world and an understanding of their country and the relations of peoples.



Organizing the School Program

The preceding five chapters have outlined the purposes of elementary schools and described in part the activities used by schools to help children achieve these goals. If children's life at school is to be purposeful and orderly to permit efficient learning, the school program as a whole must reflect careful planning, careful management, and wise use of school time. In other words, the curriculum, which consists of the activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school, must be arranged and carried forward according to plans that permit and encourage wholesome living and working.

The problem of determining what shall comprise the curriculum and of organizing it into a school program is not an easy one. The difficulty of the problem becomes more evident as one tries to find answers to such questions as these: What kinds of activities shall be included at the various age and grade levels? Should all activities find a place in each school day? What proportion of the school day or week should be devoted to the different types of activities? Should there be a definite sequence of activities each day? How may the school day be organized so that the various classes may proceed in accordance with sound teaching and learning practices? What guiding principles may be used in planning the school program as a whole and the program for individual classes? To provide an appropriate and well-balanced array of activities, the staff of a school must understand and apply several basic principles.

The Nature of Activities

School activities consist of the ways in which children's time at school is utilized. Since learning comes through participation in activities, a school program must consist of activities. More specifically, a school program must consist of activities that have high potentiality for enabling children to develop toward the goals of education.¹ The question of what activities shall compose the school program is a very important one in curriculum planning.

A second point that must be kept in mind is that in some cases it is not feasible to plan activities that have a direct relation to one or more specific objectives. For example, to teach honesty to children in the elementary school a teacher would probably not plan a series of ten-minute lessons on honesty and then teach a lesson each day over a period of weeks. Instead, she would utilize the various situations arising in the course of school activities, have children conduct themselves honestly, and discuss various phases of desirable conduct as the occasions and need for such discussion arise. Similarly, it is very difficult to motivate elementary school pupils to a vigorous study of arithmetic on the basis that they will need to be proficient in arithmetic when they grow up. Children of elementary school age are too immature to appreciate long-term values and therefore derive little or no motivation from the deferred values that teachers try to use so frequently as a means of motivation. Because of children's inability to appreciate long-term values, it is desirable for each activity to have one or more immediate objectives that are meaningful and significant in children's thinking. In some instances these immediate objectives or purposes have an obvious direct relation to the more general objectives of education. For example, an activity in a second grade might have as its immediate purpose "learning to make change correctly at the grocery store." At once the reader recognizes the relation of this immediate objective to the more general one of "the educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating."

There are other activities for which the children's immediate purposes seem somewhat unrelated to any items in a formulation of general purposes of education. For example, the children play softball during the play period. The motive prominent in the children's minds is *to have fun playing softball*. The teacher's reason for including softball among the activities sponsored by the school is the many oppor-

¹See Velma Denny (chairman), *Living and Learning in the Elementary Schools, Kindergarten-Grade Six: A Handbook for School Personnel* (Minneapolis: Minneapolis Public Schools, 1949) for examples of such activities.

tunities softball games provide for promoting physical development and social education. In a way both the teacher and the children hold the immediate purpose of enjoying the softball game, but in addition the teacher recognizes the types of educational values in the realms of physical development and social education. In a very real sense the softball game is being used by the school for the purpose of promoting important general objectives of education.

Presumably, in each school activity, the immediate specific objectives of teacher and pupils should be the same so that the activity may proceed with harmony and efficiency, but in most cases the teacher sees—or should see—rather clearly the relation between the immediate objectives and the long-term or general purposes of education. The children's desire to engage in activities is motivated by interests and needs that are rather immediate in their lives. These same factors explain why the activities that constitute the curriculum are seldom organized around topics or problems that have a direct relation to general objectives. Yet the school must be sure that the activities sponsored allow for maximum amounts of pupil development in the direction of the general purposes of education. These are also the reasons why so many school activities have such labels as "making bird houses," "playing house," "playing school," "having a birthday party," "publishing a school paper," "finding out how children live in other lands," and "preparing Christmas baskets for the needy." Such titles reflect dynamic, tangible, and immediate interests of children, and the groups of activities they suggest must be conducted in such a way that children grow and develop in the directions indicated by the general purposes of education.

The third point about activities that should be kept in mind was partially explained in a preceding chapter: most activities provide opportunity for multiple learnings. An activity such as publishing a school paper gives pupils a chance to improve their reading abilities because they will be reading various books, pamphlets, and magazines to gather information for articles to be written; to improve their handwriting, spelling, and written composition as they write articles, notices, announcements, and news items for the paper; to improve their skills in human relations as they work together in committees doing the various jobs entailed in preparing and distributing a school paper; and to improve their attitudes and proficiencies in the realm of civic responsibilities as they discharge responsible roles in publishing the school paper.

The analysis could be extended to include many more examples, but enough has probably been said to make clear to the reader that most school activities contain the potentiality for multiple learnings

Because of this indirect relation frequently found between school activities and the purposes of elementary education, the true appraisal of the program of school life must be sought by making a comparison between the purposes of education and the types of growth and development children experience.

The Nature of Experience

In an earlier chapter it was stated that experience consists of what takes place in the individual in the course of or as a result of engaging in activities. A teacher may ask a pupil to stay after school to write fifty times each word misspelled in a spelling lesson. The activity in which the pupil engages consists of writing each word fifty times. His experience consists of the improvement he makes in spelling correctly the words he wrote fifty times apiece, whatever improvement he makes in handwriting as a result of the added practice in writing, whatever changes take place in his attitude toward the teacher and the school and in his interest in attending school. In addition to practice in spelling and handwriting he may be practicing some thoroughly hostile attitudes toward the teacher while he thinks how much he dislikes school and dislikes his parents for requiring him to attend it. No doubt the experiences that make the deepest impression on the child are the ones that are the most highly charged with emotion. The net effect on the improvement of spelling and handwriting is thus apt to be negligible.

The individual's experiences, then, make up his learnings or the types of growth and development that are taking place in him. Experiences may be unwholesome or undesirable in that the child learns profanity, incorrect English, improper reading habits, the wrong answers to arithmetic combinations, or antisocial attitudes and practices. On the contrary, experiences may represent desirable learnings. It must be remembered that both desirable and undesirable learnings represent types of growth and development. (Some persons maintain that only desirable learnings can be called education.) It is therefore particularly important that schools make sure that pupils' experiences associated with or growing out of school activities are of the desirable types that lead pupil growth and development in the direction of the purposes of education.

The Instructional Fields

In Chapter 3 it was stated that for convenience the curriculum might be viewed in terms of three groups of activities, the instructional fields, and the co-curricular and adult-interest activities. Each of these

groups is discussed separately, but later in the chapter there are suggestions for effecting a closer relation between them.

Historically we have thought of the elementary school curriculum as consisting solely of the subjects or the instructional fields. Everyone is familiar with such instructional fields as reading, spelling, arithmetic, art, and music. Prior to 1800 only two subjects, reading and writing, were commonly taught in elementary schools in the United States, although a few schools had added arithmetic and language. By 1945 the total number of subjects and areas of special emphasis had reached twenty-four.

As time went on, educators sought various ways of organizing the subjects into instructional fields to improve the quality of teaching and learning. As a result of these efforts, several different plans have been evolved. The paragraphs that follow briefly describe without attempting to appraise them.

Subjects taught in isolation. The most familiar plan for organizing the instructional fields, and the plan that is probably used most extensively in schools today, is known as "subjects taught in isolation." According to this plan each subject, like arithmetic, is organized into a coherent scheme of sequential topics allocated to the various grades. The content of each subject is planned without regard to the content of other subjects appearing in the offering for the same grades. It is therefore possible—even usual—to find little or no relation between the content of the various subjects taught in the same grade. For example, the geography of Asia may appear in the same grade as European background of American history, or the spelling words studied in a given grade may have no overlapping with new terms appearing in the social studies or the arithmetic taught in the same grade. Under this plan each subject has its own time allotment and its own place in the daily schedule. The instruction in each subject field proceeds without regard to what is taking place in the other subjects studied by the same children at the same time. That is how the term "subjects taught in isolation" originated.

The correlated curriculum. In order to correct some of the weaknesses inherent in the subjects-taught-in-isolation type of curriculum organization, some school systems developed what is known as the "correlated curriculum." Under this plan each of the several subjects still retains its identity as a separate subject with its own daily time allotment, but deliberate efforts are made to bring about closer relations between the subjects taught in each of the grades. For example, the geography of Europe would be taught in the same grade as the European backgrounds of American history, the geography of the United States would be taught in the same grade as United States history,

special reports prepared in science or social studies would be presented as oral compositions in the language period, or new terms arising in science or arithmetic would be added to the spelling list for the week. Efforts to effect some correlation between the different subjects thus improves the learning situation for the pupil and makes instruction easier and more effective.

The "core" curriculum. In another plan for improving instruction one of the subject fields is selected as the core or main stem around which the work in the other subjects is planned. Some school systems took the social studies, whereas others took science or a combination of science and social studies. Once the core subject has been decided upon, steps are taken to outline the content and sequence in the core subject very carefully. After the outline for the core subject has been prepared, outlines are developed for the other subjects in such a way that at each grade level there will be high correlation with the core subject. Usually it is intended that the remaining subjects shall supplement and enrich the work in the core area. Under this plan each subject retains its identity in the program and its own time allotment in the daily or weekly schedule, but the course offering as a whole provides a high degree of correlation. The plan thus has many similarities to the correlated curriculum.

The "broad-fields" curriculum. A fourth approach toward the improvement of instruction is represented by a combination of the methods used in the correlated and the core curriculums. According to this fourth approach, known as the "broad-fields" plan of curriculum organization, rather extensive integration is effected among similar subjects. For example, the content in reading, handwriting, spelling, and language, similar in that each involves "communication," is merged into one instructional field called "language arts." Classroom activities move forward so that they deal with all phases of language arts in the natural settings in which any one of the forms of language will be used.² In similar fashion the work in history, geography, and civics is merged into an integrated social-studies area. Under the broad-fields plan it is not uncommon to find the usual long list of separate subjects merged into not more than four to six broad fields. Language arts, social studies, arithmetic, science, and the creative and recreative arts are commonly represented as broad fields.

In the broad-fields type of curriculum it is possible to select one of the fields as the "core" area and then to plan the content in the other broad fields so that each will correlate highly with the "core" field. To

²An example of a course of study in language arts that is organized as a broad-fields type is *Experiencing the Language Arts: A Guide to Teachers in Kindergarten through Grade 12*, Bulletin No. 34 (Tallahassee, Fla.: State Department of Education 1948).

In the language class children may learn that "ain't" and "has went" do not represent good English; yet such incorrect usage prevails on the playground and in out-of-school activities. Dissatisfaction with the degree of transfer from the subject curriculum to life situations has been one of the factors that has led educators to seek various types of improvements of the subjects-taught-in-isolation plan of curriculum organization. The correlated, the core, and the broad-fields types of curriculums represent varying degrees of improvement regarding transfer over the subjects-taught-in-isolation plan. Advantages other than a larger amount of transfer of learning to life situations are claimed for the correlated, the core, and the broad-fields curriculums, but our attention at this point is directed primarily to the degree to which these various curriculum plans facilitate transfer of learning to life situations.

In an effort to make learning still more functional in life situations a complete break with the subject types of curriculum organization was proposed. Instead of building instruction around organized subjects, instruction was to revolve around real activities of living such as family living, communicating, traveling, exchanging goods and services, and a variety of other common activities in which all people engage. The basic consideration is that the school should help children to do better the desirable things they are doing or will be doing. Instruction should be on a highly functional plane and all types of subject matter should be drawn on in order to improve the quality of living. For example,² instead of the various subjects or subject fields, a school program consists of activities centering around (1) protecting and conserving human and nonhuman resources; (2) providing a home and living in the family; (3) producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services; (4) transporting goods and people; (5) communicating ideas and feelings; (6) providing recreation; (7) expressing and satisfying religious and aesthetic impulses; (8) providing education; and (9) organizing and governing. The essence of the common-activities-of-living curriculum is that it is built around activities of living instead of around some form of subject organization.

To date not many schools have experimented with the common-activities-of-living curriculum, although the basic ideas it embodies are not new. Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi and John Dewey were early exponents of and experimenters with this type of program. As one reviews present practices in elementary schools in this country, one finds that subjects taught in isolation and the correlated curriculum are the prevailing types. A few school systems are using the core type of program and a few have developed the broad-fields plan. More and more school systems are evolving a curriculum organization that pro-

² *Social Education in Elementary Schools*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 1 (Waco, Tex.: Waco Public Schools, Division of Elementary Education, September, 1949)

vides for a combination of two or more broad fields. Sometimes it will be a language-arts-social-studies curriculum;⁴ sometimes a social-studies-science curriculum;⁵ or sometimes a social-studies-science-language-arts curriculum.⁶ A few experimental centers are striving to work out the details of the common-activities-of-living approach. Few school systems are following a curriculum that can be classified as a true example of any one of the five patterns of curriculum organization that have been described. In their efforts to bring about improvements, various new ideas have been incorporated into old plans so that present practices in a given school may represent a hybrid of curriculum types. It is likely that some core programs or some broad-fields curriculums have incorporated a large proportion of the special values sought by the exponents of the common-activities-of-living plan. The latter type of curriculum sometimes goes by other names, such as "the activity program" or "the experience curriculum," but these latter terms are not fully expressive of the basic ideas underlying the common-activities-of-living approach to children's education.

Co-curricular Activities

Modern educational philosophy and psychology, with their emphasis upon experiencing and learning through active participation, have encouraged elementary schools to incorporate into the regular program of the school a variety of activities that supplement the more systematic type of classroom instruction. In the high school these activities developed largely outside and quite apart from the regular subjects of instruction. In the elementary school, on the other hand, where pupils are relatively immature and where a different point of view regarding the curriculum prevails, this variety of school activities was never looked upon as "extra" curricular. The sometimes misnamed "extracurricular activities in the elementary school" should be thought of as integral parts of the school's efforts to aid children in achieving the purposes of elementary education.

One survey showed that there were forty-two different activities that were classified by one or more schools as co-curricular.⁷ The ones most commonly found were assemblies, clubs, safety patrols and safety

⁴ *Teaching and Protecting Our American Ideals of Democracy, A Course of Study for Social Living and Language Arts* (Eugene, Ore.: Eugene Public Schools, August, 1950).

⁵ *A Teaching Guide for Social Studies-Science, Grades One through Six* (Austin, Tex.: Austin Public Schools, 1941).

⁶ *Social Studies-Science-Language Arts*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 305 (Orange, Tex.: Orange Public Schools, 1946).

⁷ Henry J. Otto, *Organizational and Administrative Practices in Elementary Schools in the United States*, University of Texas Publication No. 4344 (Austin, Tex.: University of Texas, 1945), p. 60.

councils, athletic events, student council, music groups (choral singing, glee club, rhythm band, orchestra, band), and school paper. Only two schools out of 532 reported that no co-curricular activities were sponsored.

An essential point to bear in mind is that whatever co-curricular activities are found in a given school make up a part of the child's life at school. In essence these activities are sponsored by the school and form a part of the child's curriculum. They represent ways in which children spend a part of their time in school.

Adult-Interest Activities

As the years have passed by, the schools have been called on to participate in an increasing number of activities primarily of concern to adults. As adults became enthusiastic about some things that merited or needed attention, movements of various kinds were started, and once they got under way the schools were asked to promote or to participate in them. One study listed thirty-three adult activities of commercial, civic, or social nature in which the schools are expected to participate, no one school engaging in all of them but each school participating in those that are accorded special attention in the particular community. National Music Week, American Education Week, Fire Prevention Week, United Nations Day, Army Day, Navy Day, Memorial Day, various ticket sales, and scrap drives are examples. A survey of a school system in Texas revealed sixteen different adult-interest activities actually engaged in by the elementary schools in that community.* Thirty different local organizations or individuals were represented in the local adult sponsoring groups. In the course of a nine months' school year the pupils in 109 classrooms devoted a total of 360,781,890 pupil minutes to these adult-interest activities. A superintendent from another school system reported that during the 1948-1949 school year he received eighty-one requests from various adult groups for his permission (which meant that he was to take the initiative in promoting the idea or activity in the schools) to have the schools engage in an activity sponsored by a nonschool adult group.*

Whether children's participation in these adult-interest activities has sufficient educational value to justify the time devoted to them has never been tested experimentally. It is important to remember that these activities also constitute a portion of the activities in which children

* *Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Waco, Texas* (Austin, Tex.: University of Texas Press, 1947).

* Henry J. Otto, "Curriculum Issues in Elementary Education," *Educational Leadership*, 7 (October, 1949), 21-25.

engage while at school. Since children's participation in them results from the fact that they are sponsored or co-sponsored by the school, the adult-interest activities are a part of the child's curriculum. Provision for them requires time on the part of teachers and pupils and special administrative adjustments similar to those required by co-curricular activities.

The Need for Synthesis of School Activities

The picture of school activities just presented makes one wonder how so many different activities can find a place in an elementary school program in one school year. In each decade one subject after another has been added to the curriculum and seldom has anything been taken out. There is no doubt about the fact that these various additions to the curriculum have helped to enrich children's education. The periodic additions also reflect the changes that have been made in the curriculum to adjust education to the changing needs and demands of society. The net result, however, has produced a very much overcrowded curriculum that is administered in so many small compartmentalized segments that it is difficult to see how effective teaching and learning can take place. In the typical school the teacher and pupils dash about from pillar to post from morning till night in a frantic effort to keep up with the rapid pace that must be maintained in order to squeeze all the activities into a five- or six-hour school day. There is no time for teacher and pupils to stop long enough at any one point to give really thoughtful consideration to a single topic. The teachers push the children through the course of study but are not able to give them time to absorb or digest very much of it.

A major problem confronting elementary education today is the need for a reorganization and synthesis of the elementary school curriculum so that a higher quality of teaching and learning can take place. Unfortunately there are few school systems that recognize the full significance of this problem and even fewer that are beacon lights pointing the way to better solutions. In the absence of experimentation, certain ideas, questions, and proposals are presented in the hope that they may stimulate thinking and experimentation.

Let us begin this speculation by raising questions about the adult-interest activities. Could they be completely dropped from the school program? Do any of them really provide any educational values for children? If so, which ones have enough to justify the time they require? Could these same values be achieved to a higher degree through other activities already in the program? Is it necessary for the school

to participate in them? If the adults are so interested in these programs, why do not they themselves carry them out instead of imposing on the school to do the work? It is the authors' belief that most of the adult-interest activities could be dropped from the school program without jeopardizing children's education.



"Do we have to stop?"

As for co-curricular activities, few of them have ever been appraised adequately to ascertain their special educational values. What purposes are served by school assemblies? Could those values be achieved better if the conventional assembly programs were abandoned and children given wider opportunities to engage in dramatic and auditorium activities integrated in units in social studies or science? Is a *school paper* or a *school annual* really worth the time and energy it takes? Could the same values be achieved if each class prepared a news bulletin occasionally when it had messages to convey to parents or to other children in the school? Are special poster and essay contests merely an excuse for teachers to spend additional time with the few pupils who have talent? If so, is that justifiable practice?

Questions similar to these could and should be asked about each co-curricular activity. If careful appraisal shows that the educational values in some of them are sufficient to merit their retention in the program, then those and those alone should be retained. The authors suspect that the majority of co-curricular activities would not bear up under the proposed appraisal and that the kinds of educational experiences that many of them do provide could be obtained to a higher degree if they became integrated in classroom teaching instead of being retained as separate entities.

The third category to be challenged is the instructional fields. No doubt it will continue to be necessary to provide children with opportunities to become proficient in the common elements of the culture but it is not at all certain that these opportunities must be provided through a subject type of curriculum. The approach using common activities of living might prove to be much more effective. If some form of the subject type of curriculum seems necessary, at least until such time as experimentation has proved some other plan to be better, then certainly the broad-fields type of organization holds greatest promise, and it is a plan that is within reach of every school system that wishes to put forth the effort to achieve it. Within the broad-fields plan of curriculum organization many improvements are possible which will relieve the disjointedness and the overcrowding in the present program.

An Example of a Reorganized and Synthesized Program

The illustration that follows is drawn in part from present practices in public schools and in part from suggestions regarding further improvements in the organization of the program of school life. The basic pattern of curriculum organization that prevails in this illustration is the broad-fields plan. The activities that compose the co-curricular category and such adult-interest activities as the school deems worth while or feels obligated to engage in are merged with the basic activities initiated and developed in the classroom in connection with the several broad fields making up the instructional program. Such integration minimizes or eliminates the need for scheduling several programs to operate simultaneously in the same school, with all the associated conflicts.

There are two special reasons for choosing the broad-fields plan for purposes of illustration: this plan offers extensive opportunity for synthesis of the instructional fields, and it provides the easiest transition from present patterns of organization to whatever programs the school

might wish to develop at some future date. The flexibility within the broad-fields plan permits the introduction or expansion of practically all the techniques of method judged to be good by present-day authorities in elementary education.

The social-studies field. This phase of the school program should really be called the "social and civic education" field rather than "social studies." The term "social studies" has assumed a conventionalized meaning that embodies the notion that the social studies consist of a merging of geography, history, and civics. The authors' concept of "social and civic education" is much broader than the teaching or the study of the social studies. What schools are really trying to do is to give children a thoroughgoing social and civic education so that they may function effectively in society as social- and civic-minded individuals. This goal requires much more than a study of the social studies.

The major stream of activities in social and civic education may be planned in terms of the topics, problems, or units in social studies similar to those now commonly found in schools, or in terms of common activities of living, depending upon how far toward the latter approach to curriculum making a school wishes to go. Some schools may prefer a combination of the two viewpoints. In either case the course of study should include some units or projects that deal with school and community improvement. To the extent that children can participate in certain community activities, such activities should be integral, planned phases of the program in social and civic education. It is at this point that the school would participate in adult-interest activities.

As the sequence of activities in the field of social and civic education takes place at the various grade levels, each activity would be carried forward in a broad fashion so that there would be time to engage in excursions to places of interest in the community, adults in the community who have valuable contributions to make to a given activity would be invited to school to meet with the children, visual aids would be used generously, and such other associated activities as seemed appropriate would be utilized. Some educators would say that when teaching is thus organized it may be called the unit method or the use of experience units. For our purposes at this point exact terminology is less important than the idea that each of the various activities in social and civic education is carried forward in such fashion as to provide for such variety of subactivities as will enable children to have dynamic, realistic, vital, purposeful participation that will result in a multiplicity of valuable learnings.

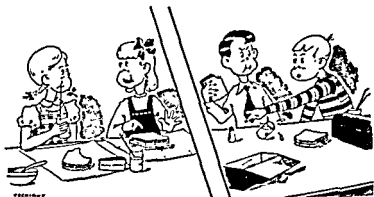
As these major activities that make up the course of study in social and civic education develop under the guidance of the teacher, there

will be many occasions for various phases of dramatics. Sometimes children may wish to write and to stage original plays; at other times they may wish to stage a play written by some professional author. Dramatics will thus find extensive application in natural settings. When plays or skits are ready for presentation to an audience, one or more neighboring grades may be invited to see and hear them. Thus will come about the occasions for auditorium programs. Auditorium presentations arising out of the natural development of classroom projects are likely to have greater educational value than auditorium programs developed in isolation, that is, apart from general classroom work. The "natural" kind of auditorium presentations may very well become a substitute for conventional assembly programs, which have now become outmoded. Writing in the form of a school paper or news bulletin would also be done as an integral part of the major activities in social and civic education. Instead of issuing a school paper on a predetermined schedule, each class would issue its news bulletins when the need for them arises.

Social and civic education should be conceived broadly enough to make planned provision for intelligent participation by pupils in the solution of the many problems that arise in connection with group living at school. These problems are so numerous that only a few can be mentioned. There is the new pupil who has just moved to town with his parents and enters school. He needs to be welcomed and helped to find his way around the school plant. There is the child who lives across the tracks and has no friends at school. There are the problems of intercultural relations, especially as they relate to minority groups. The questions of traffic in the halls, the use or misuse of toilet rooms, the conflicts arising out of the multiple use of play areas by children of different ages, the safe conduct of children across busy streets near the school, pupil conduct on school buses, eating in the lunchroom, and the many phases of classroom management can all be handled more effectively if pupils and teachers share in discussing them, reaching agreements, and laying plans for solving the problems. No program in social and civic education is worthy of the name unless it deliberately provides for utilizing for children's education the problems associated with group living at school.

By way of summary it may be said that the broad field of social and civic education encompasses instruction in the social studies as we have conventionally conceived it and in addition includes such adult-interest activities as the school agrees to engage in, school and community improvement projects, and all phases of group living at school. If properly planned and carried forward, the activities in social and civic education will absorb and utilize in integrated ways most of the

co-curricular activities. By following such a program the school has its schedule-making problems eased greatly in that the schedule provides ample time for the broad field of social and civic education without the school's having to work up a dozen or more different sets



The lunchroom can be used to teach good manners.

of activities and sets of schedules. The associated activities that are actually included in the school program are limited to those that can find integral use and functional expression as parts of the major activities in the field of social and civic education.

Science. Another of the broad fields in the proposed plan is elementary science. Perhaps this field ought to be called "elementary science and health" so as to make it clear that the school is giving careful consideration to health instruction. There are several reasons why health instruction should be planned as an essential phase of the science field. The content in health education is science content. It is true that certain phases of health instruction have social and civic implications, which should be stressed, but the same statement can be made about other topics or problems in elementary science. The social and civic phases should be stressed in every field so that the presence of these aspects of health is no argument for separating health from the other aspects of science treated in the elementary school.

Planning health instruction as a part of the science course has the added advantage of giving the former a sounder and more stable place in the elementary school program. In the past, health teaching has been handled in most schools in two or three separate fifteen-minute periods a week by the regular classroom teacher, by a special classroom teacher, or by a special teacher of physical education. In any case the inter-

mittent short periods have made an effective job virtually impossible. When health instruction is given on alternate days in lieu of physical education the plan has the added disadvantage of taking place in a poor psychological setting: the children's minds are set on play and fun rather than on instruction in health; the instruction is thus likely to be relatively ineffective.

Although science is not new as an instructional field in the elementary school, it has not been developed in a systematic and thoroughgoing way in many school systems or in many state courses of study. The rapid development of science and technology in our culture and the ubiquity of science factors and materials in children's lives make it imperative that science and health be developed as an essential part of elementary school programs.

The basic sequence of activities in science and health may be planned in ways similar to those already discussed for social and civic education. The major activities in science and health may also be carried forward by teachers and pupils along lines similar to those described for the major activities in social and civic education. In this way the science and health activities will incorporate within themselves some of the co-curricular and adult-interest activities.

Arithmetic. The third broad field in the school program is arithmetic, and in the modern elementary school it consists of more than facility in computation. The history of arithmetic shows that a system of numbers, with related vocabulary, arose from actual, though primitive, social situations and that its development has been associated with more and more complicated social applications.

There are many topics in the field of arithmetic that should be treated in such a way as to bring out the place of number in society. For example, the price of a loaf of bread becomes more than a number when the children understand what they pay for when they buy a loaf of bread. Likewise, learning to tell the time is not simply a matter of reading a modern alarm clock. Actually, the clock helps people to live together.¹⁰

Much of the arithmetic children experience will be closely related to or will grow out of significant school and out-of-school activities. However, one must not lose sight of the sequential nature of arithmetic.¹¹ This means that the alert teacher will find countless opportunities for building a rich background of socially significant

¹⁰ Leo J. Brueckner and Foster E. Grossnickle, *Making Arithmetic Meaningful* (Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1953), p. 7.

¹¹ Robert Lee Morton, *Teaching Children Arithmetic* (New York: Silver, Burdett Co., 1953), p. 22.

mathematical experiences—all within the scope of a broadly conceived arithmetic field.¹²

The language arts. The fourth broad field consists of the communication skills, which commonly include listening, speaking, writing (written composition, as well as spelling and handwriting), reading (oral and silent), and literature. The language-arts field is so well known that an extensive description is not required here. In the past, schools have usually handled instruction in language arts by organizing it into four or five separate subjects, each with its own course of study and daily class period. In the plan herein proposed the eight skills would be merged into an integrated field in which instruction would be organized around interest centers and carried forward in such a way that all the phases of language would find logical expression and functional application. Organizing the various activities around large centers of interest recognizes the natural relations among the language arts. It is a fact that the child's growth in one communicative skill does not take place independently of growth in the other communicative skills.¹³

Instruction in the broad field of the language arts, where the various aspects have been integrated as proposed heretofore, may be carried forward in several different ways. In the primary grades some of the activities are planned and scheduled as a separate field, while most activities are integrated with those in the other fields. One teaching guide that shows how language experiences grow out of science, social studies, number, art, and music suggests such activities as (1) making the classroom attractive, (2) exploring the school environment, (3) learning to do things safely, (4) caring for pets, (5) entertaining parents and friends, and (6) enjoying the holidays.¹⁴ A large majority of teachers in the primary grades have acquired a high degree of proficiency in integrating language-arts activities with units in the other fields so that a completely integrated program built around major activities has become quite common in our public schools.

In the intermediate and upper grades the language-arts activities may be organized and scheduled as a separate field¹⁵ or they may be merged completely with the activities in arithmetic, science and health,

¹² *What Does Research Say about Arithmetic?* (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States), p. 9; B. R. Buckingham, "The Social Point of View in Arithmetic," *The Teaching of Arithmetic*, Fiftieth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951), Part II, pp. 269-281.

¹³ William B. Ragan, *Modern Elementary Curriculum* (New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1953), p. 241.

¹⁴ Ruth G. Strickland, *A Guide for Teaching in "English Is Our Language Series," Grades 1 and 2* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1950).

¹⁵ *Language Arts in Our Schools: A Guide to Improvement of Instruction in the Elementary School* (Newark, N. J.: Board of Education, 1950).

and social and civic education.¹⁶ In the latter type of arrangement the assumption is made that the language-arts skills that need attention in the intermediate and upper grades can be developed better if instruction is carried forward in the natural settings for using language that arise in the three content fields. Such a plan enables teacher and pupils to use materials from the content fields for the further development of communication skills instead of being forced to create artificial situations for this work in separate reading, handwriting, spelling, language, and literature periods. School systems that have tried the "merged" plan have found that it results in higher achievement in the language arts and higher achievement in the content subjects.

No discussion of the broad field, which is responsible for developing all the communication skills, would be complete without some mention of the practice in some elementary schools of teaching a foreign language. The reliable estimates indicate that in 1953 one hundred communities in some thirty states were conducting foreign-language programs in one or more public elementary schools. The urgent need for instruction in foreign languages in today's shrinking world prompted the United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. Earl J. McGrath, to propose in 1952 that foreign-language instruction be started in the elementary school.¹⁷ Others share his enthusiasm for beginning languages early.¹⁸ As in the English-language arts¹⁹ the emphasis is on skill in communication, especially on listening and speaking.

The creative and recreative arts. The fifth broad field in the proposed program consists of music, art, and physical education. Because of the distinctly different nature of these three areas, it will probably be necessary to think of them as three separate parts of the broader creative and recreative-arts field.

Music may be thought of as composed of three parts: content to be taught, the consumers' uses of music, and specialized instruction for children with special talent and interest in music. In the music field certain knowledges, skills, and appreciations should be brought into the lives of children so that they may have an opportunity to acquire them.

¹⁶ *A Program in English: A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts, Kindergarten through Twelve* (Denver: Public Schools, 1953).

¹⁷ Theodore Andersson, *The Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Elementary School* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1953), pp. iii, iv.

¹⁸ E. M. White and others, "Report on Status of Practices in the Teaching of Foreign Language in the Public Elementary Schools of the United States," *Modern Language Journal*, 37 (March, 1953), 123-127; Carlos Rivera, "Where All Foreign Language Teaching Should Begin—First Grade," *Texas Outlook*, 37 (November, 1952), 10-13.

¹⁹ *Language Arts for Today's Children*, National Council of Teachers of English, Curriculum Series Vol. II (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954).

These phases of music are here called "content to be taught." This portion of music can probably be handled satisfactorily in two thirty-minute periods a week.

The consumers' uses of music consist of the many ways in which every person, to the best of his ability, should use and enjoy music in the everyday activities of living. An effective vehicle for educating children to wider and better uses of good music is the extensive integration of music with the major activities in social and civic education and to some extent in the science and health field. It is in these activities that group singing, learning the folk songs and folk games of other lands, and listening to phonograph records and to the radio should take place. If music is freely used throughout child life at school we may come closer to achieving the accepted objectives of music education.

Much can be said in favor of having the school provide group instruction in piano, wind instruments, and string instruments. Boards of education seem to have no hesitancy in employing extra teachers to give special help to the laggards, which is one way of making special provision for atypical children, that is, children who are atypical because of slow development or deficiency. It should be equally justifiable to make special provision for children who are atypical because of superior talents. If group instruction in the three areas mentioned is provided, it can be handled in the same way as "special-interest clubs," which will be discussed later.

The field of art may be thought of as composed of the same three parts as music, and the different parts may be managed in the school program in ways similar to those proposed for music. The art field should be conceived broadly so that it includes a large variety of handicraft activities as well as painting and drawing. Altogether too often the school art program is limited to painting and drawing. In the primary grades the emphasis is on free expression. As the child sees the need for more skill in drawing, the teacher guides him through questioning and directed observation in ways that help him improve his own techniques. Teachers must not overlook the fact of individual difference in the area of the creative and recreative arts. Not all children are equally ready for the "next steps" in art, music, and physical education.

Physical education serves two main purposes: to promote children's physical development and to enhance social and civic education. In order that both values may be derived by the pupils, physical education periods should be instructional periods just like any other curriculum field. Authorities differ somewhat about the length and frequency of the daily periods for physical education. One thirty-minute period or two twenty-minute periods a day should be the minimum time devoted to physical education.

This brief résumé of a reorganized and synthesized elementary

school curriculum reveals seven broad fields around which the program of school life is planned; social and civic education, science and health, arithmetic, language arts, music, art, and physical education. If these seven fields are handled in the ways proposed in the discussion, they can easily incorporate within themselves practically all that needs to find a place in a good modern program of elementary education. The only exceptions are the special-interest clubs other than those in art and handicraft, and group instruction in piano, wind instruments, and string instruments, which were mentioned in preceding paragraphs. A school program that endeavors to meet individual differences in children in even a reasonably adequate fashion should have a variety of special-interest clubs in addition to those already named. Glee club, orchestra, science club, camera club, typing club, dramatic club, and foreign-language club are illustrations of some other types. Usually special-interest clubs meet for a one-hour period once a week. Membership in them should be voluntary and perhaps restricted to pupils with special talents and interest. Such clubs do much to enrich the curriculum for pupils with special abilities.

In addition to the activities in the broad curricular fields, most schools provide a variety of associated services, such as library services, radio broadcasts, visual-aids service, and health services. The authors consider these as services, not programs. The library exists to serve the classroom; the classroom does not exist to serve a library program. The only program that should exist in an elementary school is the program of the teacher and her class; hence when we talk about program making we speak of programs for class groups, not programs for assemblies, audio-visual education, safety, the library, or testing.

Scheduling the Reorganized School Program

Each school and each classroom within the school needs to evolve a schedule under which the life of the class group and that of the school as a whole may go forward in accordance with the educational goals sought for children and the conditions prevailing in that school. There is no one best schedule for all schools. There are some guiding principles, however, in terms of which a local schedule may be planned and evaluated.

Daily health inspection of every child should be first on the agenda every morning. Preferably this is done informally by the teacher or school nurse before the official time for the opening of the morning session as the children arrive at school. Usually the teacher is in her classroom fifteen to thirty minutes before the morning session officially starts and the children come into the room as they arrive at school. This informal period provides an excellent opportunity for the teacher

to make a daily health inspection of every child. If the informal before-school method is not used, then the opening minutes of the morning session should be set aside.

The schedule of every class group should allow at least one period of thirty to fifty minutes a day for individual help and independent work. If individual differences are to be recognized in school practice, the daily schedules of teachers must be planned to give the teacher the occasion and the time to reach individuals and small groups. Children who do not need individual assistance from the teacher may occupy themselves in independent activities of their own choosing as long as these are educationally worth while. One should not get the impression, however, that all effort at meeting individual differences is confined to this period. Individual differences should be recognized and met as extensively as possible throughout the school day. The purpose of the special period for individual help and independent work is to give the teacher a better opportunity to assist those children who need the types of help that cannot be given easily during other portions of the school day. Independent work by the other pupils is also a way of meeting individual differences.

In order that all groups may have access to certain facilities and services such as the playground, the lunchroom, the library, the auditorium, the gymnasium, and the lavatories, certain phases of schedule making must be done cooperatively by the teachers and the principal. If the lunchroom accommodates only one third of the enrollment, it is obvious that the class groups must take turns going to lunch. It will facilitate everyone's work if some agreement is reached about which classes are to go to the lunchroom at 11:30, which ones will go at 12:00, and which ones will wait until 12:30. The use of the gymnasium for rhythms and folk games may be left on an appointment basis except on rainy days, when a predetermined schedule for its use would have the same advantages as the scheduled use of the lunchroom. The use of the auditorium and the library had best be left on an appointment basis so that their uses may be effectively integrated with the major activities in the curriculum fields. Multiple use of the playground by different age groups will require a predetermined schedule. Children should be free to visit the lavatories when the need arises; the scheduled gang lavatory periods should be discontinued. If it is at all possible, a rest period for all pupils and the teacher should follow the lunch period. The customary practice of having children engage in strenuous play right after eating lunch should be discontinued. If a rest period after lunch is provided, children who go home for lunch but return to school before the close of the rest period should join the rest period rather than engage in outdoor play and thereby disturb those at rest.

Activities requiring the finer muscular coordinations, like hand-writing and drawing, should not come immediately after physical education, but none of the other activities in the curriculum need be given a special time in the daily schedule. At one time it was thought that certain subjects, like arithmetic, required a greater degree of pupil effort or concentration and that these "harder" subjects ought to come in the forenoon. Research has now raised serious doubts about the contention that some subjects are harder than others. Even if there should be some difference between the difficulty of the various subjects, research has shown that pupil efficiency is sustained fairly well during all periods of the day so that special places in the daily schedule need not be sought for certain curriculum fields.

Since so many teachers have succeeded in completely integrating the instructional fields in the primary grades, their problems of schedule making have become rather simple. Except for the general items listed in the preceding paragraphs for which provision must be made in the primary grades, teachers in these grades may use the remainder of the school day in giving free flow to the sequence of subactivities making up the major activities around which the work of the children is built. Flexibility in the use of school time is thus a prerogative that must be extended to all teachers in the primary grades. A typical schedule for a day during the second year in school follows.²⁰

- 8:00-8:20 I. Sharing period
- A. Exchanging experiences and showing items
 - B. Checking on absentees
- II. Carrying out chosen weekly assignments
- A. Watering plants and arranging flowers
 - B. Cleaning cages of pets (white rats, parakeets, hamsters, turtles)
 - C. Feeding tropical fish, adding water and cleaning filter wool
 - D. Dusting furniture and cabinets
- 8:20-10:00 Social-living unit experiences
- I. Planning for the day
 - A. What committees need to complete or start and what individuals need to accomplish
 - B. What to do when finished
 - II. Working on tasks
 - III. Cleaning-up and evaluating work for the day
 - IV. Discussing work for next day and materials needed to continue work

²⁰ Supplied by Mrs. Mary B. Hilzlm, Supervising Teacher, the Laboratory School, College of Education, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

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- 10:00-10:25 Fruit juice
Organized games and free play (outside)
- 10.25-11:05 Reading in groups (very flexible and change often--sometimes two, three, or four groups)
- 11:05-11:20 Special phonics period
- 11:20-12:20 Lunch, rest, and free activity
- 12:20-1:20 Recreational reading and storytelling
- I. Reading books of their own choosing
 - II. Volunteering to read to class, observing standards set up by group (planned a week in advance)
 - III. Reading by teacher to the group
- 1:20-1:45 Number experiences
- I. Presenting various concepts as needed by groups (usually two)
 - II. Using many and various games and real-life experiences
- 1:45-2:00 Free play (outside)
- 2:00-3:00 Cooperative drill period (according to individual needs)
- I. Children helping each other
 - II. Teacher giving assistance when needed
 - III. Individuals working alone at times
 - IV. Writing notes or letters as needed

Note: On three days a week children have music experiences with the music teacher. On other days music experiences are under the direction of the regular teacher. A variety of art experiences is provided in connection with the other activities and at free time.

For the intermediate grades, a broad-fields type of curriculum organized along the lines projected in the preceding sections is well illustrated in the following account of how one sixth grade spent a day in school.²¹

- 8:00-8:10 Prepared for the day: As children arrived they
- A. Looked at exhibits
 - B. Discussed with each other the things they had brought
 - C. Attended to their committee work such as taking care of flowers, window ledges, book shelves, orders for paper and pencils sold by a high school club, etc.
 - D. Sharpened pencils and got materials or books needed, etc.

²¹ Supplied by Miss Grace Bailey, Supervising Teacher, the Laboratory School, College of Education, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

8:10-9:00 Arithmetic: *Bank Day*

A. Depositors

1. Prepared deposit slips
2. Took their money to the schoolroom bank
3. Gave money to a "teller" who checked the money and the deposit slips before putting them in the large envelope that is to be sent to a local bank

B. Banking committee

1. Found the per cent of the class that deposited money today
2. Explained the problem to the class

C. Class members who did not make deposits today

1. Continued practice work in the arithmetic unit on making deposit slips, keeping savings accounts, writing checks, etc.
2. Worked at their own rate of progress and were given individual or group help as needed

D. Class worked together

1. Found the amount deposited by the class
2. Found the average amount deposited each week during the six weeks that Bank Day has been in operation
3. Discussed the proposed visit to the City National Bank

9:00-10:30 Social studies: Unit—*Living in Japan*

A. Children found information related to problems and activities that had been formulated and planned by them

B. Read materials on a wide range of difficulty

C. Took notes using suggestions for note taking given in the language textbook

D. Committees conferred with teacher and worked on the following activities:

1. A map to show the industrial areas of Japan
2. Charts to show
 - a. What per cent of the people are engaged in various occupations
 - b. What per cent of the land (1) is used for farming, (2) is covered with forests, (3) is mountainous, and (4) is used for other purposes
3. Dramatization of a report on "Tea Growing in Japan"
4. Picture charts to explain
 - a. Steps in rice growing
 - b. Steps in silk production
5. Dramatization of the story of "The Sun Goddess"

E. Evaluated the progress made by the various groups

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10.30-11:00 Physical education

Group I—Played tennis

Group II—Played ping-pong

11:00-11:40 Language arts

- A. Individuals worked on words misspelled in written work
- B. Class studied new and review words in spelling textbook, noting especially those that are needed and used most frequently by the class
- C. Planned to write letters thanking the professor from Japan for talking to the class about his country; pupils suggested other ways of letting him know that his visit was appreciated

11:40-12:40 Lunch (followed by free-play period)

- A. Washed hands in the cafeteria before eating
- B. Practiced being pleasant and courteous during the lunch hour
- C. Carried trays to the counter when lunch was finished

12:40-1:30 Music (both singing and rhythms)

1:30-2:00 Group reading

- A. Remedial-reading group read practice readers for the purpose of developing ability to
 1. Find the general significance of a short selection
 2. Understand implied details
 3. Know whether a given statement is true, not true, or not mentioned
 4. Find the antecedent of a pronoun in a given sentence
- B. Advanced readers read library books related to the unit, including fiction, travel, biography, etc.
- C. Readers of average ability
 1. Read a story in the basal reader
 2. Had questions and activities to test comprehension of the story (these were on the board)
 3. A pupil leader checked children's work

2:00-3:00 Art: Work on a mural to show the beauty of Japanese scenery

- A. Planned and made sketches of things that would be appropriate
- B. Discussed sketches and planned the composition of the mural
- C. Planned and accepted their responsibilities for getting the mural painted

3:00 Dismissed

It is not intended that the schedule just presented should be viewed as unalterable. Many variations can be developed without violating the

basic principles of curriculum organization or the guiding principles of schedule making. It is merely illustrative of the way in which curriculum reorganization and synthesis may be translated into a workable daily schedule.

Chapter Summary

The curriculum consists of the activities in which children engage while at school. It must contain an array of appropriate and well-balanced activities that enable children to experience development toward *all* the purposes of education. Experience consists of what takes place in the individual in the course of or as a result of engaging in activities. In order that life at school may proceed expeditiously, school activities must be organized into some type of program. They may be classified roughly into the instructional fields, co-curricular activities, and adult-interest activities. To relieve the overcrowding and disjointedness of the school program, a reorganization and synthesis of school activities is necessary. How this reorganization and synthesis may be achieved through a broad fields type of curriculum was illustrated.

The chief generalizations to be remembered from this chapter are as follows:

1. The program of school life consists of all the activities in which children engage while they are at school.
2. Children's education takes place through children's participation in activities.
3. School activities must be appropriate in scope and variety to enable children to experience development toward all the purposes of education.
4. School activities at each grade level must be centered around pupil interests and needs to obtain a high degree of motivation and purposive pupil activity.
5. Every school program that is to function smoothly and effectively must have some form of organization.
6. To organize school activities into a coherent, well-coordinated, effective scheme or plan is a very difficult task; many variations are possible, depending upon the values to be emphasized and the character and quality of teaching and learning desired.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Baxter, Bernice, Gertrude M. Lewis, and Gertrude M. Cross. *The Role of Elementary Education*. Boston. D. C. Heath & Company, 1952. Chap. 9, "Planning Educative Experiences for Children."

2. Caswell, Hollis L., and A. Wellesley Foshay. *Education in the Elementary School* (2d ed.). New York: American Book Co., 1950. Chap. 10, "Organizing the Curriculum."
3. Clark, Harold F., and Anne S. McKillop. *An Introduction to Education*. New York: Chartwell House, 1951. Chap. 22, "Curriculum of the School."
4. House, Ralph W. "Primary Criteria for Adjusting the Curriculum to the Child," *School and Society*, 71 (January 7, 1950), 9-11.
5. Mehl, Marie, Hubert H. Mills, and Harl R. Douglass. *Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950. Chap. 15, "Selecting and Organizing Learning Materials."

Suggested Student Activities

1. Visit an elementary school and by observation and interview with teachers and principal try to get an inventory of the types of activities which find a place in the school program in the course of a school week. Try to classify these activities under the three headings of instructional fields, co-curricular, and adult-interest. What plan of curriculum organization prevails in that school?
2. Discuss the questions raised by the authors concerning what shall be included in the curriculum.
3. If possible spend an entire day visiting and record the "Schedule for the Day."
4. List the subjects which you had in elementary school. How does your list compare with one made for that school or for some other today?

PART **3**



Teaching



The Children

The function of teaching is guiding children's development in the direction of the purposes of education. At each age and maturity level every child must be encouraged and helped to grow and develop from where he is to such higher levels of maturity as are within his reach. The rate and character of such "growing up" must be consistent with the evolving growth pattern of the individual.

All teaching, then, must begin with children as they are, as groups *and* as individuals, and carry them forward from that point. A thorough understanding of children is thus the starting point in all teaching. Let us look at a typical class group and the individuals who compose it.

A Third-Grade Class

The third-grade class to which we now turn our attention consisted of 20 children in an elementary school with an enrollment of 221, distributed in kindergarten and the first six grades.¹ Most of the children were members of families who resided in the small city, where they owned their own homes. Some children, however, lived on nearby farms and came to school in the school bus.

Some of the essential facts about this third-grade class are summarized in Table 5 and portrayed graphically in Figure 2. The mental ages of the children were obtained by giving the Kuhlman-Anderson Intelligence Tests. The children's achievement in reading (paragraph meaning and word meaning), spelling, and arithmetic (reasoning and

¹ Data and narrative adapted from Marge Ausite Coker, "Analysis of Factors Pertaining to Elementary School Class Groups in Overton, Texas" (Master's thesis, University of Texas Library, 1946).

achievement score identified as educational age. In percentile rank on the personality test they range from 40 to 95, and the peer-status percentile ranks range from 0 to 104.

Another way of examining the class as a group is to study the medians and the interquartile ranges. In all the measurements converted into age units, the medians range from 96 months for word meaning to 113 for height age. The medians for the subject ages are very similar to the medians for mental and chronological age. The middle two thirds (representing the interquartile range, the limits of which are indicated by Q_1 and Q_3) of the class vary by 9 months in chronological age and mental age and by as much as 29 months in weight age. In the achievement areas the interquartile range varies from 16 months for word meaning and educational age to 25 months for paragraph meaning.

The data just presented for this third-grade class *are not unusual*. Nearly every teacher in an elementary school classroom of twenty or more children could provide comparable data. In many instances the differences between the least mature and the most mature children in the class (as reflected in age units) would be even greater than the ones shown for this third-grade class.

TABLE 5

Developmental Ages, Percentile Ranks on Personality Test, and
Percentile Ranks on Peer Status Test for a Class of Twenty
Pupils in a Third Grade

Developmental Ages		High	Q_3	Mid	Q_1	Low
Chronological Age	(CA)	134	107	104	98	96
Mental Age	(MA)	116	108	102	99	91
Height Age	(HA)	145	116	113	99	88
Weight Age	(WA)	150	125	111	96	88
Dental Age	(DA)	143	108	103	92	83
Subject Ages						
1. Paragraph Meaning	(PM)	126	110	99	85	81
2. Word Meaning	(WM)	128	102	96	86	83
3. Spelling	(Sp)	116	108	102	91	84
4. Arithmetic Reasoning	(AR)	111	108	100	95	91
5. Arithmetic Computation	(AC)	119	110	99	89	76
Educational Age		120	107	99	91	83
Percentile Rank on California Personality Test	(CPT)	95	85	70	60	40
Percentile Rank on Peer Status	(PS)	105	60	34	17	0

There are several important generalizations that the reader should obtain from the facts presented. First, the third-grade class described here is a typical class group of pupils. Although these twenty pupils are more alike than they are different, there are really twenty different individuals in this group. Heterogeneity as well as similarity characterizes class groups. Second, children who differ noticeably in various phases of maturation cannot approach identical activities and learning tasks with the same degree of readiness and similar chances for success.

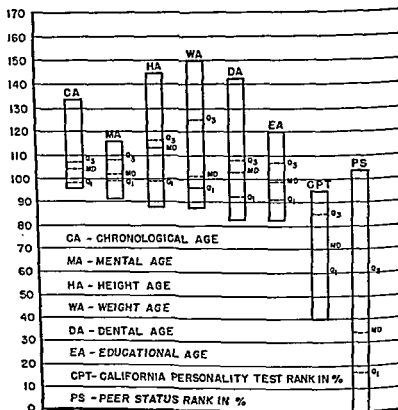


Fig. 2—Developmental Ages, Percentile Ranks on Personality Test, and Percentile Ranks on Peer Status Test for a Class of Twenty Pupils in a Third Grade.

Instruction must be organized to provide for the individual differences in the group. Third, no teacher could make an intelligent approach to teaching this class until she had gathered the necessary data and acquainted herself thoroughly with the children.

Studying children as class groups is basic to good teaching, but the true significance of group data becomes more vivid as individual cases are studied and viewed in relation to the group as a whole. Let us look at three individual members of the class.

Julia

The best picture of Julia in relation to the class group may be secured by comparing the data for Julia with the various bars in Figure 2. Julia was a member of a stable family that owned its own home and provided many opportunities for its children. Since her chronological age was only 98 months, she was one of the youngest children in the class. Her height age of 114 months placed her just above the median of the class. Her mental age of 116 months, educational age of 120 months, and weight age of 150 months placed her at the top of the group in these measures. One can thus picture her as a fat or heavy youngster of average height and chronological age for the third grade but very bright and accelerated in mental maturity and achievement. She was especially gifted in music.

Julia was not very well liked by her classmates because she had a habit of impressing her superior knowledge upon her associates. Her percentage ranking on peer status was only 34. Her unusual musical ability was regarded with awe and esteem by the group. An awkward child and not always willing to cooperate, she was often unpleasant when she could not have her own way and in some instances she was cruel and overbearing to the point of revenge.

On the personality-adjustment test, Julia's total score was 65 per cent. The individual test on which she scored especially low was the one pertaining to her feeling of belonging. She always appeared to act as if she thought she was not quite acceptable in the group. To the questions "Do you need to have more friends?" and "Do you feel that people don't like you?" she answered yes. She even imagined that other children were mean to her and deliberately tried to hurt her feelings. Her imaginings in this direction led to some embarrassing moments for herself and her associates.

Julia was an excellent student. All her work was done accurately. She was able to accomplish much more than the average child in the third grade. Her superiority in academic fields was reflected in the achievement test, in which her subject ages were 123 in paragraph meaning, 128 in word meaning, 113 in spelling, 108 in arithmetic reasoning, and 119 in arithmetic computation, and 120 for total educational age, the highest in the class.

David

As one traces the data for David across the bars in Figure 2, one gains the impression that this boy was an average third-grader. He was the best-liked child in the group, as shown by his peer-status rating of 105. His height age of 99 months, weight age of 95 months, and dental age of 92 months were slightly below his chronological age of 101 months. Because of his unique ideas and common sense, his contributions to any group activity were especially helpful. He was selfish and domineering with the children, but they always sought his approval, sometimes because they feared his scorn. When asked on the personality test "Do you play games with other children even when you don't want to?" he quite honestly answered no. To the question "Does it make you angry when people stop you from doing things?" he answered yes. He, like others in the class, did not feel that he had as many friends as some of the others and that he could not do things as well as other children. To cover his own feelings of inferiority may have been the reason for his domineering manner.

His mental age of 109 months and his educational age of 107 months were within the upper one-fourth of the class. His own highest subjects (111 months in arithmetic reasoning and 110 months in arithmetic computation) were among the highest in the class. His lowest subject ages (101 months in word meaning and 105 months in paragraph meaning) were above the medians for the class.

Sue

Sue could be described as a sluggish, docile child whose learning rate was below normal, as shown by her mental age of 91 months and chronological age of 98 months. Sue was the third youngest child in the class, had the lowest mental age and the lowest height age in the group, but was in the upper quartile in weight with a weight age of 133 months.

Even though Sue was shy and timid she was an accepted member in the group, as shown by a peer-status rating of 26 per cent. On the personality test it was discovered that she felt that she had fewer friends than the other children, that she thought most of the other children were smarter than she, and that some children did not want to be her friends. Actually this was not altogether true. She was kind, friendly, and congenial with her associates.

Her educational age of 86 months was lower than her mental age of 91 months and her chronological age of 98 months. In achievement her lowest subject ages were in word meaning, paragraph meaning, and

During the conversation, the mother remarked, 'I think Mildred is doing very well considerin' she can't hear good.'

"What a shock that was to me! I hadn't thought of that as a reason for Mildred's indifference to school. We talked on very frankly. The mother continued. 'You know, Mildred had the scarlet fever about three years ago and she has never been able to hear well since.' I had never dreamed that the child was handicapped in that way.

"I asked, 'Does she hear when you talk to her?'

"If she is very close to me,' the mother answered.

"Then and there I decided that teachers may fail as well as pupils. There was now no time to be lost. Mildred moved to the front of the room. I was always careful to stand and talk so she could understand. I made sure that she understood instructions. I told the other children about Mildred's difficulty in hearing. They became very helpful in making her understand them in class and at play, without shouting at her or making her feel that she was odd or 'different.' I worked hard and Mildred worked hard to catch up on her back work. We both experienced a grand awakening.

"By the spring of 1941, Mildred had reached the eighth-grade level of achievement. As the family was planning to move back to their former home during the summer, I told the mother to be sure to have a talk with Mildred's new teacher the very first day of the school term and to tell her about Mildred's hearing difficulty and how it had been handled in the elementary school."³

But having information about a child is not enough. One must also understand the meaning of that information in terms of the child's behavior and use one's information and understanding in determining and applying whatever steps are taken to help the child modify his behavior. The same behavior in two children may have entirely different explanations and should be dealt with by entirely different methods. For example, two children in the same class may appear to be listless. One may be a very bright pupil who is bored by the class activities or who is in deep thought about some topic. The other listless child may or may not be equally bright but



The teacher works with child and parents.

³Ruth Strang and Latham Hatcher, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943), pp. 14-15. Reprinted by permission.

is hard of hearing. It seems obvious that no intelligent teacher who had the necessary information and understood its implications would treat these two cases alike.

Prescott and his associates have prepared an excellent statement of what it means to "understand" a child. Their statement is quoted in full.

We believe, in the first place, that teachers who understand children think of their behavior as being caused. They see a youngster's present actions as based upon his past experience, as shaped by his present situation, and as influenced by his desires and hopes for the future. This view of human behavior holds that a child's actions can be understood if his relevant past experience is known, if his present situation is analyzed in terms of what it means to him, and if his desires and hopes for the future are taken into consideration. It also implies that every girl and boy is educable, that unacceptable behavior can be changed, and that desirable and effective action can be evoked. This, we think, can be accomplished by arranging conditions and situations that are appropriate to the child's developmental level, capacities, and personal needs; by maintaining relationships with him that are supporting and reassuring; and by providing him with experiences that help him to understand the world and people around him, and that indicate effective ways of acting which he himself can perfect. This point of view is in sharp contrast with the more common conception of child behavior as capricious and impulsive and therefore to be controlled by adults without reference to its causes. We believe that teachers find in the idea that behavior is motivated and understandable a more reasonable and effective hypothesis for their daily work with children.

A second characteristic of teachers who understand children is that they are able to accept all children emotionally, that they reject no child as hopeless or unworthy. There seem to be three bases upon which this fundamental valuing can rest. One is scientific. To say that a child's behavior is shaped by his past experience, his present situation, and his hopes for the future is to hold that it is natural behavior under the circumstances. Teachers who believe this cannot ever seriously reject or blame a child for what he does, because his behavior is seen only as a symptom of underlying causes. This does not imply, of course, that undesirable behavior is condoned. Quite the contrary, inappropriate behavior defines some of the teachers' tasks. Understanding teachers try to gauge what conditions, relationships, and experiences have been and are exercising unwholesome influences on any youngster's actions and attempt to arrange or supply others that will neutralize or replace these undesirable influences.

Two philosophical conclusions reinforce this scientific basis for accepting all children. One is the belief that every human being is inherently valuable and therefore has the right to all the help that can be given him in achieving his best development. The other is the recognition that all children potentially can make some contribution to carrying on the society into which they are born and therefore deserve respect for whatever talents they can put to work for the common good. Both of these philosophical

valuations of individual human beings imply that it is the obligation of teachers to accept every child as having intrinsic worth, no matter what his capacities or behavior. Also connoted is the further obligation to assist every pupil in realizing his potentialities. Whatever may be the root from which develops an emotional acceptance of all youngsters, we have found that this attitude characterizes the teachers who are most effective in their work. We believe that it is prerequisite to a genuine understanding of children.

Our third point is that teachers who understand children invariably recognize that each one is unique. Every youngster differs from all others in the magnitude and pattern of combination of the many factors which determine his characteristics and actions at any given moment. Some of these highly variable factors are body build, physiological stability, available energy for activity, rate and timing of growth, mental capacities, knowledge and skills, attitudes and values, general experience background, number and nature of unusual experiences, relationships to parents and siblings, status with peers, and way of regarding himself. Because of these many variables that influence development and behavior a child can be understood only by a person who knows a great deal about him. An understanding teacher recognizes this and continuously gathers and organizes information about his pupils, uses it to distinguish significant differences between individuals, and attempts to help each boy or girl in ways that subtly take this uniqueness into consideration.

We believe, in the fourth place, that the various sciences concerned with human growth and behavior have demonstrated that young people, during the several phases of their development, face a series of common "developmental tasks." They have to learn to walk, to talk, to dress themselves, to get along in groups, to behave as boys or as girls, to act conventionally in a thousand situations, to read, write, figure and spell, to use money, to respect property, to accept the values that characterize American life, to find a way of earning a living, to select and win a marriage partner, to fulfill civic responsibilities, to arrive at a satisfying explanation of the meaning of life and of the universe—and much else. We believe that individuals naturally tend to work at these tasks when they reach the appropriate maturity levels, and that they are disturbed when they fail to accomplish any of them. Understanding teachers know what these tasks are; their sequence and timing in relation to physical, social, and mental maturity; what complications often arise as persons with different characteristics and backgrounds work at them; and what conditions, relationships, and experiences are most helpful to children in mastering each of them.

A fifth characteristic of understanding teachers is that they know the more important scientific facts that describe and explain the forces that regulate human growth, development, motivation, learning, and behavior. The sources of this knowledge are more than a half dozen different sciences, including biology, physiology, pediatrics, anthropology, sociology, psychoanalysis, and psychiatry as well as the more usual psychology and education. An expert or technical knowledge of each contributing science is not

necessary, but a working knowledge of their cardinal principles is essential. Furthermore, these principles are not used simply as disparate, independent explanations of one or another aspect of growth, learning, or behavior; they are not simply added to each other until each detail of development is covered. Instead, the interrelationships between these principles are worked out to the point where all of them are combined into an explanatory framework of scientific knowledge. The child lives and acts as an indivisible unit and understanding teachers study him as such; so their interpretive generalizations also have to be knit together into a synthetic whole that will show the interdependence and interaction between different aspects of growth, development, and behavior.

Finally, we believe that the understanding teacher habitually uses scientific methods in making judgments about any particular boy or girl. This means checking the validity of all information about the child and recognizing when the facts are too few to permit sound judgment. It implies knowing what further facts are needed and how to set about getting them. It means that initial conclusions will be regarded only as hypotheses, that alertness in looking for new information will not be relaxed, and that the teacher will be emotionally ready to modify, or even completely to reverse preliminary judgments about children when new evidence calls for such a change. It means being so thoroughly habituated in using these procedures for making decisions during the daily routine of classroom activities that reasoning back and forth between data about a child and scientific principles becomes virtually second nature.

To sum up, our definition of understanding a child includes contrasting subjective and objective elements. On the one hand, it calls for the subjective acceptance and valuing of individual boys and girls—emotionally and philosophically rooted and serving to reassure and afford security to all children, even when they misbehave. On the other hand, it also implies objectivity in the use of sound procedures and knowledge to interpret the causes of a child's acts, to appraise his adjustment problems and personal needs, and to work out practical ways of helping him master his developmental tasks.⁴

What a Teacher Should Know about a Child⁵

To say that a teacher should know and understand each child is to precipitate the question "What should a teacher know about each child?" There is no single answer, and teachers who hunt for one that

⁴ Daniel A. Prescott and associates, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1945), pp. 8-12. Reprinted by permission.

⁵ The authors acknowledge indebtedness in the preparation of this section to Fritz Redl, *What Should We Know about a Child?* (Lansing, Mich.: The Michigan Cooperative Teacher Education Study, 1941); and to Strang and Hatcher, *op. cit.*, Chap. 2.

is standardized will be disappointed and at the same time reveal the inadequacy of their own knowledge and understanding of human beings. Children, like other human beings, are *individuals*, and what is important in the life of one person may be inconsequential or not even occur in that of another. Experience has demonstrated, however, that most of the events that are important in the lives of individuals fall into one or more representative groups. These groups of factors are outlined in the paragraphs that follow and may be used as a broad frame of reference in order to assure oneself that major categories are not overlooked. The exact details important in any one category will vary from child to child.*

Health and physical condition. A child who is not well or who has physical defects cannot behave like other children or do justice to himself or his associates unless adequate compensation is made for his limitations. Therefore one naturally looks first for types of information about the child's health and physical condition. In this connection one would want to know about a child's vision, his hearing, frequency of minor illnesses, frequency and types of more serious illnesses, the recency of any serious illness, his height and weight, whether he has been gaining regularly in height and weight, whether his appetite is generally good, and whether he becomes fatigued easily.

Children with observable physical limitations such as bodily deformities, a crippled condition, a missing hand, arm, foot, or leg, skin blemishes (birth marks), or low vision should be studied with special care. Frequently maladjustment is due to inadequate adaptation of the school environment in classroom and playground activities, or the failure of other children to understand the limitations under which the particular child is endeavoring to achieve his personal and group status. Children who have had long periods of illness have frequently become accustomed to and learned to enjoy the overprotection provided by parents during an illness. When the child has recovered and his health is no longer a worry, he has a hard time reverting to the customary degree of independence, responsibility, and attention from others. During this readjustment period some children are difficult to manage, but usually the task of steering from natural spoiling to more normal attention without too much discouragement or frustration can be accomplished if teacher and parents understand the circumstances.

The home, the family, and family relations. Someone has said that when a child comes to school he brings with him his whole family, at

* No attempt is made in this book to present a comprehensive treatment of child study. It is assumed that the student has taken or will take specialized courses in child psychology, child study, or case-study procedures. For additional references, see Recommended Additional Readings and Selected References.

and distrustful.¹ Some of them regard their life as a result of their own virtues and failures; others are equally convinced that whatever happens is "done to them" by some mystic power beyond their range of influence—God, The World, Providence, The Boss, and so on. Some parents consider their children the means of demonstrating how right or wrong they are, how much good or how much evil they deserve from destiny, or how successful or unsuccessful they will be. Some children, loaded with the task of making up for their parents' social failures, are squeezed into social spheres for which they are not prepared. This point is illustrated by the premium placed upon the child's academic success irrespective of the child's real abilities and interests. The hopes and ambitions of parents and the ambitions they have for their children are important determiners of the psychological climate of the home.

The philosophy of life held by parents may give some clues to the kinds of persons that they are. The personality and behavior of the individual parent obviously affects the interrelations between parents and between parents and child. It makes some difference whether a child grows up with a normal or a neurotic mother, an understanding or a choleric father, an overambitious or an uninterested parent, with or without healthy or invalid relatives in the home. It is also important to know whether the parents agree or quarrel with each other, whether they agree on their children's education or use it as the battleground for carrying on their marital differences, and whether their relation is stable or subject to periodic crises. It is equally important to know how parents feel toward their children and how children feel toward their parents. What parents and children think of each other is another good index to the quality of parent-child relations.

It is often important to know what place in the family a youngster takes. Is he an only child, the youngest, the oldest, or the middle child in a long list of siblings? Is the child an only boy among girls or an only girl among boys? The youngest of a family with two or more nearly grown sisters actually grows up like a child with many mothers, with all the advantages and disadvantages of such a situation. "Positional psychology" has taught us that these various places in the family constellation may change the psychological environment in which a child develops. Sibling relations are equally important components of the family picture. All the various places in the family constellation have their advantages and disadvantages. Some children outgrow or surmount the disadvantages but others need special help. Such help cannot be given intelligently unless the facts are known and properly interpreted.

The child's school relations. In the human part of the school

¹ Redl, *op cit.*, pp. 11-14.

the child may have set for himself. Many of these types of information may be secured in highly objective form by the use of the appropriate standardized measuring instruments; others will be available only in more or less subjective form. To know a child's special abilities, interests, and goals may enable a teacher to unlock a vast amount of psychological energy in the child.

For children who deviate noticeably from the norm the teacher will seek the assistance of specialists in psychology and medicine to aid her in determining what other types of data should be sought and to obtain any information that she is not qualified or equipped to gather.

The following account illustrates the methods used in obtaining the various types of data needed in the study of one child.

EMILY'S STORY^{*}

That ten-year-old Emily was a child who would need help and understanding was the impression gained by her fourth-grade teacher when she read the cumulative record and supplementary data for her before the opening of school. Her score on the progressive reading test in the spring showed a reading grade placement of only 1.6, although her attendance had been good and she had attended one school for four years since kindergarten. If the test data were accurate, Emily had a reading handicap. The intelligence-test data showed an IQ of 130 when she took the Pintner-Cunningham test in the first grade. However, Emily had been retained in the first grade because of "immaturity." Teachers in earlier grades had noted that Emily was "obedient," "slow-learning," "trying hard to please." The only facts recorded about the family were that her father was an engineer, her mother a housewife, and there were two older sisters.

Soon after the usual rush of the first few days of school and the necessary arrangements for getting her forty-three pupils settled, the teacher noticed that Emily was "a fragile blond with a restrained manner and a wistful expression." Seated at the rear of the room she seldom spoke and never caused any difficulty. An informal oral-reading test, given before dividing the class into double space groups, showed that the reading-achievement test of the previous year had been rather accurate in Emily's case, for she had practically no sight vocabulary. On the other hand, she did quite well in arithmetic and her painting was the most interesting done by any child in the room. She always

^{*} Adapted from "Emily's Story, as Told by Her Teacher," recorded by Constance Chandler, *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 17 (February, 1950), 180-185. Used with permission.

selected pastel hues and filled every spare moment creating fairies and gnomes and other figures of fantasy. They were suggestive of Walt Disney's characters, except for their extreme delicacy.

All the teacher could do at first was to place Emily in the lowest reading group, give her every opportunity to print, praise her for her art work and arithmetic, and encourage her to participate in group discussions. This program met with little success, however, aside from the fact that Emily seemed to be developing a fondness for her teacher. She asked for help after school and would have stood by the teacher throughout the game period had she not been practically forced to join her group.

About the fourth week of school a sociogram was constructed. The children were asked to write down the names of the two children they would most like to sit near. Just as the teacher suspected, Emily was the only isolated, unchosen one in the whole room aside from a non-English speaking youngster who had just come to this country as a displaced person. As might be expected, Emily's first choice was an extroverted and gay girl who was the leader of the largest clique. No wonder Emily wanted to be near the bright, popular, and attractive Sally! But Emily's second choice, oddly enough, was a drab, underprivileged, timid girl who was chosen only once. It was as if Emily had said, "Sally represents all I would like to be, but Rose is undoubtedly what I am and what I shall have to be content with." How alone she must be! Without having done anything to offend, Emily was rejected. Little wonder that she preferred not to take part in discussions and games!

The next clue to Emily's problem came with the inauguration of the audiometric testing program. After the group testing of hearing, those who fell below a certain score were given individual tests. Although none of her teachers had thought of Emily as hard-of-hearing, her individual audiometric test was followed by an otological examination. A change of seating was immediately made. The discovery of Emily's hearing loss and the observation that she was making practically no progress with her reading led her teacher to request an individual intelligence test. Because of the hearing loss, the psychometrist gave the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for children and found that the child's verbal IQ was 115 and her performance IQ was 147, with a total of 135. Since Emily was a bright child handicapped in the use of words, with whom traditional methods had failed, the teacher decided to try the kinesthetic method. The prospects of a daily half-hour with her teacher after school spent in story writing and tracing of words delighted Emily.

The first report of the year was in the form of a conference with parents. Emily's mother, a large, rather mannish-looking, dominating person did most of the talking at the conference. She spoke of what a disappointment Emily had been to her parents because of her laziness and failure to read, how bright and popular the older girls were, and how hard she had worked with Emily on her reading night after night. She questioned the "baby stuff" Emily was doing after school. The teacher tried to point out to her that Emily was a bright child, that it was not laziness that kept her from reading, that the kinesthetic method capitalized upon her excellent ability to use her hands as well as upon seeing and hearing, and that Emily was extremely talented artistically. The teacher suggested that the homework in reading be discontinued. It was hard to tell whether anything constructive had come out of the conference.

Emily responded beautifully to the individual afternoon sessions. She showed the same creativity in her story writing that she had revealed in drawing. And in between writing and reading, she would talk—about her dog, her sisters, and her quiet father. Little was said about Mother. Emily was getting along better in the classroom, too. When her seat had to be changed, it gave an excuse to place her next to Rose. The teacher thought that it might be easy for her to develop some kind of friendship with this youngster. It was suggested that Emily could help Rose with her arithmetic. Rose responded, and the two became increasingly friendly. Later, when Sally was directing a play that the class had written, it was suggested that she ask Emily to draw sets and costumes. The results were highly successful.

About a month later a tall, thin, ascetic-looking man came to school and introduced himself as Emily's father. He expressed his appreciation for what was being done for Emily. He was quiet and gentle in manner, easy to talk to, and from his visit it was learned that the two older daughters were more like their mother in personality, whereas Emily was quite similar to him. However, his long absences from home, due to the nature of his work, had left Emily rather alone, psychologically speaking. Also, he admitted that he, too, had been disturbed about Emily's failure to read. He valued reading and the intellectual life highly, and it hurt his pride to think that his daughter, who resembled him in so many ways, was perhaps not very intelligent after all. Now he realized that it was not lack of intelligence that had kept her from reading. He reported that the physician who was treating Emily felt that her hearing would be restored. He also spoke of a film, *Problem Children*, shown at a P.T.A. meeting, that had helped to make him aware of his full responsibility as a father. Emily's needs for

affection, praise, and attention were discussed, and the teacher felt encouraged after the visit from Emily's father.

The rest of Emily's story in the fourth grade was a happy one. She progressed amazingly with her reading and was almost up to grade at the end of the year. This progress was undoubtedly due in part to her intelligence but also to her restored self-confidence and to her eagerness to learn. She began taking books home of her own accord and her father would explain the words she did not know and then write them down in her notebook to be checked by the teacher. Her art work for the play improved her status in the class and she began to feel more comfortable about participating in discussions and in games. Her friendship with Rose grew and she also was admitted into Sally's group as a loyal follower. This transition was helped by Sally's inviting her, at the suggestion of the teacher, to join the Girl Scouts. "I had grown very fond of Emily," the teacher said, "and was sorry to lose her when June came, but there remained a very real sense of satisfaction in having contributed what I could toward helping Emily find herself."

The following comments were made by the recorder.

Emily's story is a simple one that might be repeated, with minor variations, by any teacher in any classroom. However, every such story could not have so happy an ending, even with the help of a teacher like Emily's. Too often there are too many things that cannot be overcome. A wise teacher, like the one who told this story, will do what she can to help each child and then realistically accept the fact that some children's problems either require the help of others or are insoluble because of conditions that are beyond remedy.

The key to this success story lies in the genuineness of the teacher's concern for the total adjustment of each child in her classroom. She was also aware of the significance of symptoms and knew well that the quiet child may truly be a problem to herself, if not to other people. She was alert to clues that might point to causes of maladjustment. She recognized the basic needs of belonging, of status, of self-esteem, and of acceptance by others. She was generous with her own time and energy. She was familiar with modern guidance techniques, such as the sociogram, as well as with different approaches to the acquisition of reading skills. And finally, she was able to use other resources than her own skill and ingenuity—the strength within the family, children in the classroom, the psychometrist, and character-building groups. All of these attributes helped to make her a "guidance-minded teacher."^{*}

^{*}"Emily's Story, as Told by Her Teacher," recorded by Constance Chandler, *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 17 (February, 1950), 185. Reprinted by permission.

Procedures in Acquiring Knowledge and Understanding of a Child

Many teachers are baffled and overwhelmed when the idea of child study is suggested. Sometimes they are overwhelmed with sheer numbers. For the teacher who has forty or more pupils or finds herself in a situation in which she must teach a hundred or more each day, a feeling of discouragement is understandable. Inherent in the need for careful child study is a defensible argument for assigning a small number of children to a teacher and permitting her to work with them more than one term. This plan is illustrated in Chapter 1 and also later in this chapter.

Some teachers have had brief—too brief—exposure to child study in one or more of their college courses and perhaps a glimpse at the psychological laboratory and its impressive array of specialized equipment. Thus in the absence of thoroughgoing training in clinical psychology the neophyte is apt to get the impression that child study can be done only by the specialist, or that child study goes on only in laboratories, or that all child study requires expensive equipment and many gadgets. Children with certain kinds of problems should have the services of a specialist who has appropriate equipment to do a thorough job, and appropriately equipped laboratories are essential if research is to push forward our frontiers of knowledge, but *much child study can be done by anyone who has the will to do it and who will provide himself with sufficient training so that he can bring a professional attitude and a reasonable background of knowledge to the work.* Child study is not something otherworldly, reserved for the mystics. Every teacher who wishes to can become qualified—must become qualified—to do the amount and quality of child study prerequisite to good teaching.¹⁰

The procedures commonly used in acquiring a knowledge and understanding of individual children can be classified into four groups: observation, interview, analysis of pupil's oral and written responses, and objective measurements of various kinds. Let us turn briefly to each of these.

Observation. Every teacher has extensive opportunity to observe the children she teaches in the many situations in which children are found in the course of each school day. Persons who are just beginning

¹⁰ An excellent example of a longitudinal study of one child is Cecil V. Millard, *School and Child: A Case History* (East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State College Press, 1945). (Ordered through local bookstores only.)

their interest in child study should start their observations by noting the most distinguishing identifying characteristics. What is the child like right now? How does he dress? How does he appear to others? How does he behave toward strangers? How does he behave in the classroom, in the halls, on the playground? Does he seem happy? Does he appear healthy? How does he behave when he has made a mistake? Does he participate readily in group play, in class discussion, in study periods? Does he have any peculiarities in dress, mannerism, or habits?

These initial observations should be supplemented later with more extensive information that will shed light on the underlying factors and causes of the child's behavior. Such information should include historical data, which reveal the developmental background in terms of which present behavior can be understood better and redirected more intelligently.

In many schools teachers are urged or required to make written notations of their observations on individual children. Such written notations are called "anecdotal records" or, if cumulative over a period of time, "behavior journals." Usually teachers need some help in recognizing and recording significant aspects of behavior that have diagnostic, developmental, or guidance value. Many good published treatises are now available to assist teachers in this task.¹¹

Interview. In the typical teaching situation it is sometimes difficult to separate observations from interview because the teacher lives so closely with the children that conversation with an individual child takes place frequently during each school day, and much of the conversation occurs while the teacher is observing the child in some activity. Interview, as used by classroom teachers, does not have the formal aspects of taking place in someone's office by special appointment. The teacher's interviews with individual pupils take place in the many informal relations enjoyed by teacher and child. Sometimes a teacher has an opportunity to visit with a child as he arrives in the morning before the formal opening hour. Sometimes the recess period or the noon hour or the period immediately after dismissal time provides occasions for a conversation with a given child.

An interview is not just a chat; it is a conversation with a purpose, mutually satisfying to both persons. In order that an interview with a child may produce significant information that helps her to know and understand the child, the teacher must first have established good

¹¹Fritz Redl, *Helping Teachers Study Their Children* (Lansing: The Michigan Cooperative Teacher Education Study, 1941); Daniel A. Prescott (chairman), *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1945), Chap. 2, "Learning to Describe Behavior." See also Selected References.

rapport with him so that he talks freely. The teacher must also have acquired skill in conversation with children and skill in asking the kinds of questions that will elicit illuminating responses.

Analysis of pupils' oral and written responses. Many of the things children say or write or draw reflect their knowledge, attitudes,



"The school I attended last year? Let me see. I attended five different ones."

feelings, wishes, and hopes. Comments pupils make in conversation with the teacher, individual children, groups of children, and in class activities may contain much information helpful to the teacher in understanding them and in suggesting special interests and talents they may possess.

Written responses appear most commonly in class activities involving written composition, written reports in science and social studies, in original material that children write because they are self-motivated (or teacher motivated), and in spontaneous (nondirected) drawing, painting, clay modeling, or other handicraft work. Eng pointed out many years ago that spontaneous drawing teaches us how a child, growing up in civilized life, learns something by himself, how he unfolds his powers, what he takes from his surroundings, and what

he seeks and takes from others.¹² A study of children's art products frequently reveals important information about fears, worries, wishes, and aspirations, as well as attitudes toward family, peers, and teachers.¹³ "A Story about Me," "The Kind of a Person I Like Best," and "What I Like to Do When I Have Time of My Own" are examples of suitable topics for written compositions. One of the most extensive series of studies of children's interests included the responses of school children on such subjects as "One of the Happiest Days of My Life," "What I Like Best (and Dislike Most) in School," and "My Favorite Radio Programs."¹⁴

Objective measurements. Every teacher has the opportunity to supplement her informal methods of studying children through observing, interviewing, and analyzing their oral and written work with some types of objective data. Information on height, weight, vision, and hearing is the easiest to obtain. The child's status among his classmates can be obtained by the simple device of asking each child to write the names of three or five classmates with whom he would like to exchange Christmas presents or whom he would like to sit beside or invite to a party.¹⁵ Inventories of children's special interests may be obtained by a simple questionnaire in which the teacher asks each child to write the three or more things he most likes to do or by a published interest inventory.¹⁶

If the school provides each child with a periodic medical and dental examination, the findings are usually recorded on cards; from these the teacher can get facts about the child's disease history, health status, and nutritional status. In the academic realm the majority of schools now make routine provision for periodic group mental and achievement tests, which teachers are requested to administer and score so that these data, too, are readily available to teachers. General achievement tests are frequently supplemented with diagnostic tests in various subject fields.

The discussion here is not intended to be a complete inventory of types of objective measurements or procedures in testing. Such compre-

¹² Helga Eng, *The Psychology of Children's Drawings* (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., Ltd., 1931), p. 181.

¹³ Rose H. Alschuler and L. W. Hattwick, *Painting and Personality: A Study of Young Children* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947), Werner Wolff, *Personality of the Preschool Child* (New York: Grune & Stratton, Inc., 1946).

¹⁴ Arthur T. Jessild, *Child Psychology* (4th ed.; New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), Chap. 16.

¹⁵ M. E. Bonney, "The Relative Stability of Social, Intellectual, and Academic Status in Grades II to IV, and the Interrelationship between These Various Forms of Growth," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 34 (February, 1943), 88-102.

¹⁶ Paul Witry and David Kopel, *Diagnostic Child Study Record, Form III—Pupil Report of Interests and Activities* (Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Psycho-Educational Clinic, 1948).

hensive treatment may be obtained from other sources.¹⁷ Enough has been said, however, to indicate the place of objective data in child study, to point out that many types of objective data are readily available to all teachers, and to suggest the importance of gathering as many kinds as time and circumstances permit. Any plan for gathering objective data on individual children should be geared to the situation and circumstances under which the teacher is working and to types of data the teacher feels competent to interpret or thinks she can become competent to use wisely. Objective data have been misinterpreted and misused so much that a word of caution is not out of order. There is nothing sacred or mystical about objective data. They are important and useful when accurately obtained and properly used, but they are not an automatic means of understanding children.

One Teacher Studies Her Children¹⁸

A teacher in a small school, where facilities for making a thorough study of children were limited, devised and adapted various techniques, which she used during her two-year contact with one group in the fifth then the sixth grade.

She observed the twenty-four children in and out of school for such things as (1) their attitude toward school and school subjects, (2) how well they got along with their peers, and (3) how skillful they were in play. Through interviews, informal tests, and the Rose Zelig's Test on Attitudes toward School,¹⁹ she discovered the special abilities, hobbies, and wishes of each child. By means of parent conferences, questionnaires, records on file, and the Rose Zelig's Test on Health Habits and Attitudes,²⁰ she assembled information on the home, family, and health of each child. A group intelligence test was given the first year of her study and twice each year she gave an achievement test. Excerpts from three class charts, which summarized the data for the group, illustrate the types of information the teacher acquired for representative individuals. For facts pertaining to a "gifted," an "average," and a "retarded" pupil see Charts 1, 2, and 3.

¹⁷ C. G. Ross (revised by Julian C. Stanley), *Measurement in Today's Schools* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954); Harry A. Greene, Albert N. Jorgensen, and J. Raymond Gerberich, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary School* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1953); A. M. Jordan, *Measurement in Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953).

¹⁸ Data supplied by Mrs. Opal Hollis, Coldspring, Texas.

¹⁹ Rose Zelig's, *Glimpses of Childhood* (New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1942), Chap. 14.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, Chap. 17.

The individual file folders for Anna, Jim, and Clara contained case histories and anecdotal records. Case histories treated such topics as (1) background, (2) description of the child, (3) scholastic records, (4) attitude toward school, (5) relations with peers, and (6) social needs. A few excerpts from the anecdotal records follow.

Anna (selected from 22 on file)

9-16-51. Had name taken by room monitor because her desk was untidy. When she could not find a library book, Jerry suggested that she clean out desk and she would find it.

10-9-51. Remarked that she wanted to be on first space ship to the moon, after class had read story on this subject. Suggested reference material for her to read and she said she would like to give a report to the group on it.

10-19-51. Left open book and loose papers on desk. Did not put rain-coat in cloakroom. Monitor asked her to stay in at recess and put her desk in order. She did this willingly as though it had not occurred to her to do it before. Mary and Leta waited for her just outside.

Jim (selected from 22 on file)

9-20-51. Jim started piano lessons today. He will take one lesson a week. Burt asked, "What you want to take music for? That's sissy stuff." Jim looked disgusted as he replied, "Aw—that's my mamma's idea."

10-3-51. The piano teacher came to the room looking for Jim. He said he had forgotten his music and therefore did not go to his lesson.

11-8-51. Jim was to have been program chairman of the club meeting today. His subject was "Bird Migration," but it soon became evident that he had not prepared for it. He tried "ad libbing" but no one was fooled. One of the pupils said, "Jim, you know you are making that up." Jim said that he read *part* of it.

Clara (selected from 24 on file)

9-20-51. Gave Clara special help in arithmetic. She put her hand over her mouth and gasped each time she made a mistake. Tried to put her at ease by speaking kindly and showing genuine interest in her.

11-10-51. Clara told me today that she had to drop out of H Club because her mother said they did not have the money for it.

11-21-51. Clara selected to play the part of a pilgrim in the Thanksgiving play. Anna remarked, "Clara really makes a good Pilgrim because of her long hair." Clara beamed with delight. (Note: More comments are being made on good points now instead of so much criticism among the pupils.)

CHART No. 1

Personal and Social Adjustment

Pupil	Personal Traits	Abilities	Acceptability Rating	Attitude toward School Subjects	Hobbies	Voluntary Reading (*Favorite)	Playground Behavior
Anna	Serene, self-sufficient, agreeable	Creative, talented in art and music	10-51 (15 highest) 15	Curious, interested in learning, bored by routine	Music, painting, reading, horseback riding	Classics, romance, historical fiction, science, adventure	Good sport, capable of giving or taking orders in playing games
Jim	Imaginative, dependable	Public speaking	8 9	Varies in concern about grades, usually interested in work	Hunting, fishing	Cow boys,* pioneers, Indians	Does not get along well with others in his group, guesses a great deal, little skill in sports
Clara	Industrious, dependable, systematic	Singing	3 9	Uncertain, often confused, eager to please	Singing, cooking, sewing, house-work	Mystery, short stories of Colonial Days,* biography	Skillful baseball player, usually joins Kitty in playing with children in lower grades

CHART No. 2
Home Background

<i>Pupil</i>	<i>Parent's Occupation</i>	<i>Parent's Education</i>	<i>Parent's Marital Status</i>	<i>Siblings in Home</i>	<i>Others in Home</i>	<i>Home Duties</i>	<i>Attitude of Parent toward School</i>
Anna	M-Typist F-Oil-field worker	High School	Normal	1	0	Housework, helps with little brother	Both parents very interested, mother president of P.T.A., visited school often
Jim	M-Housewife F-Farmer	High School	Normal	0	Paternal grand-father	Feeds livestock, dogs, gets wood	Mother served as Room Mother 2 years, visited school often, both parents expect child to make good grades, belong to P.T.A.
Clara	M-Housewife F-Farmer	Grammar School	Normal	2	0	Outside chores, care of farm animals, housework	No contact with father, mother visited several times, cooperative

CHART No. 3

A Summary of Standardized Test Results, Attendance, and Health Records

Pupil	Date of Birth	Dearborn Group Tests II 10-28-49			Gray-Votaw-Rogers Achievement Tests								Days Absent		Height* Weight*	Physical Disabilities
					Fifth Grade				Sixth Grade							
					11-9-50		4-25-51		10-10-51		4-22-52					
		C.A.	M.A.	I.Q.	E.A.	E.G.	E.A.	E.G.	E.A.	E.G.	50-51	51-52				
Anna	9-9-39	10.1	15.6	153	13.0	7.8	14.1	8.8	14.1	8.8	14.6	9.4	3	1	x	Weak eyes, wears glasses
Jim	5-21-40	9.5	11.4	102	10.9	5.8	11.1	5.9	11.1	5.9	12.9	7.6	0	5	x	Arms and hands turn out
Clara	1-20-40	9.8	9.4	95	9.11	4.7	10.0	4.8	9.10	4.6	11.1	5.9	0	0	x	None

* Normal, † above, — below

The teacher attributed any success in child study that she may have had largely to these factors: (1) a relatively small group in her *self-contained classroom for two years*, (2) *the teacher's having lived in the community long enough to know the community and the families of the children*, (3) *the teacher's genuine interest in and enjoyment of people, particularly preadolescents*, and (4) *a sympathetic and understanding administration*.

What a Teacher Should Know about a Class

A class is composed of individuals; hence a class group can be viewed and appraised satisfactorily only to the extent that the individuals in it are well known and understood. All that has been said about knowing and understanding individual children is thus an integral part of knowing and understanding a class. Some of the information a teacher desires about an individual must be secured as she observes the child in group situations. Conversely, certain information about a class is available only through the data gathered about individual children. Studying the individual and studying the class are thus mutually complementary processes and are carried on concurrently by most teachers.

A class, however, is more than a collection of individuals or the simple sum of the characteristics and abilities possessed by the individuals who comprise it. A class is a social group, a small society, or a team. The strength of a team of eight horses is greater than the simple arithmetical sum of the pulling power of the eight horses if applied separately. If the horses pull together harmoniously, it is likely that each horse pulls harder than if he were hitched alone. In a group or team, each has the added motivation and excitement resulting from the fact that there are many present with similar goals.

Of course children are not horses, but group dynamics in a class are like group dynamics in a team. These group dynamics are seen most clearly in well-known illustrations. The parent sometimes has difficulty in securing the child's cooperation in taking a nap or a rest period at home; but at school, because everyone does it and because the event seems to have the approval of the group and the teacher, the child not only participates readily in a rest period but also takes some responsibility in seeing to it that others conduct themselves properly during that time. Some children will not eat certain foods at home, but at school everyone eats at least a little of all foods served and each child strives for a "clean plate" (*no food left on plates at the close of the meal*). At home a child may be careless about leaving his clothes and toys

scattered about the room, but in the class group he not only takes care of his own things but willingly assumes the chairmanship of a committee of room monitors. On the less constructive side are children who are happy at home but very unhappy at school, children who are very cordial with other children in the neighborhood but are bullies at school, and children who are vivacious in out-of-school activities but quiet and reticent or even sullen in school.

In order properly to utilize and guide the group dynamics of a class a teacher needs to know something about each child, about the class as a group, and about the relations of each child to the group as a whole. The kinds of information that a teacher should have are illustrated in the description of the third-grade class presented at the beginning of this chapter and need not be repeated here. In general, these data may be grouped into three categories: physical, sociological, and educational. In the physical realm the teacher should have information on chronological age, height, weight, and such other indices of physical growth and development as circumstances permit. In the sociological category the teacher should know something about general social maturity, mutual friendships, whether there are any children without friends, and how each child feels about belonging to that group. In the educational area the teacher should have information on mental age, IQ, general educational age, and maturity status in the separate subjects as expressed by subject ages.

In studying a class group one should remember that we are concerned with group data and that we must view the group as a whole *and* each child in relation to the group. In viewing the group as a whole one wants to know the range, that is, the difference between the youngest and the oldest or the lowest and the highest in each phase of growth and development represented by the types of data gathered, and the median or mid-point, and how many and which children deviate noticeably from the middle half or middle two-thirds of the group. These types of information are vividly presented and easily understood if portrayed in a bar graph like the one used in describing the third-grade class at the beginning of this chapter. In addition to finding the medians for the group under consideration it is well to compare the medians with norms that have been established for children of the same grade or chronological age. Knowing how a given class compares with a typical class of the same age or grade is of tremendous help to a teacher in gauging instructions and materials so that both will be appropriately geared to the abilities and maturation levels of the children. Such comparison with norms is also helpful in appraising the progress of the children; one should not expect a normal rate of progress from children who have less than average ability.

The second phase of studying a class group is to study each child in relation to the whole group. Again the reader is referred to the bar graph presented earlier in connection with the description of the third-grade class. In Figure 2 the measures (translated into equivalent age units) of three individuals were plotted to show how each child stood in relation to the median, the first quartile, the third quartile, and the range for the whole class. Much of a child's behavior in the classroom and on the playground can be understood better or even explained if one knows how the child stands within the class to which he has been assigned. Every child should feel that he belongs to the group, that he is wanted by it, and that he has important contributions to make to its activities. Each day or week every child should have some chances to excel and to be excelled in one or more of the group's activities. Wholesome personality and character develop best in an environment in which there is a wholesome interplay of give and take, of leadership and followership, of excelling and being excelled. This fact alone is sufficient reason for insisting that a study of a class should include a study of each child in relation to the group as a whole.

Procedures to be used in studying a class are about the same as those used in studying individual children. Practically all the types of information needed in studying a class are already available as a result of the steps taken in studying individual children. Or, as is more frequently the case, teachers obtain the data needed for studying class groups and then apply to the study of the individual the information thus acquired. Studying a class thus requires only one step that is not a part of case study procedures: organizing the available data so that a picture of the class as a group is readily at hand.

Chapter Summary

All teaching must begin with children as they are and carry them forward from that point. In order that this may be achieved, the teacher must be thoroughly familiar with the children as individuals and as a class group. The procedures used in acquiring knowledge and understanding of children consist of (a) observation, (b) interview, (c) analysis of pupils' oral and written responses, and (d) objective measurements of various kinds. The types of information needed in studying individuals and class groups are (a) health and physical conditions, (b) the home, the family, and family relations, (c) the child's school relations, and (d) personal data. Studying individuals and studying class groups are not separate and unrelated activities but are intimately related parts of a complete approach to knowing and understanding children as a basis for effective teaching.

The following major ideas were developed in this chapter.

1. At each age and maturity level each child must be encouraged and helped to grow and develop from where he is to such higher levels of maturity as are within his reach.

2. Teaching must begin with children as they are, as groups and as individuals, and carry them forward from that point.

3. Information about children is the starting point in all good teaching.

4. Most of childrens' behavior is caused by or grows out of their effort to meet their basic physiological, social, and ego-integrative needs through some form of adjustment to the circumstances and possibilities in the environment. Knowing and understanding children is thus basic to effective guidance or redirection of children's behavior.

5. Child study and teaching are not separate entities. Child study is an integral and essential part of teaching.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Forest, Ilse. *Child Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954. Chap. 1, "Toward Understanding Children;" the section "Evaluating Social Development," pp. 144-154.
2. McClosky, Gordon, Zeno B. Katterle, and Delmar T. Oviatt. *Introduction to Teaching in American Schools*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co., Inc., 1954. Chap. 9, "Teachers Plan Ways to Help Children Learn."
3. Merry, Frieda, and Ralph V. Merry. *The First Two Decades of Life*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. Chap. 1, "How We Study Children and Adolescents."
4. Peck, Leigh. *Child Psychology*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1953. Chap. 3, "How Children Are Studied."

Suggested Student Activities

1. Invite a teacher to meet with you and tell about the kinds of information she gathers about her pupils and how she proceeds in her child-study work.

2. Examine examples of sociograms, noting which children are isolates, stars, and so forth. Explain how you as a teacher would use the information to be had from a sociogram.

3. Read and report on a reference dealing with either the gifted child or the slow-learning child. What are the needs of these children? References that will help you are to be found in the Selected References.

4. Look up the "Pledge to Children" prepared by the Mid-century White House Conference on Children and Youth. Comment on its implications for those who work with children.



Growing Up and Learning

The chief business of childhood is growing up and learning. The children may not be aware of the fact that that is the main thing they are doing, but it is nevertheless true. The life of happy, healthy children appears so carefree that adults are apt to conclude that child life lacks purpose and seriousness, which, of course, is not true. Adults are likely to overlook the fact that the ceaseless activity of children is an essential part of growing up and learning.

The role of activity in child life and the relation of activity to growing up and learning can be visualized more clearly if one stops to reflect upon common events in home, school, or community with which nearly everyone is familiar. Johnny wants to play out-of-doors; the weather is chilly; his mother suggests some additional clothes to put on, and in the process Johnny learns that additional clothes help to keep him warm, what kinds of clothes keep him warmest, and how to put on his own clothes. William's father is a locomotive engineer. William has heard much about locomotives from his father and William wants to know all about locomotives because he, too, wants to be an engineer when he grows up. One Sunday afternoon his father takes William to the roundhouse and lets William get very close to the locomotive and takes him into the cab to show him the various levers. William thus learns many very interesting and useful facts about locomotives. Thousands of other illustrations could be given, each of which might illustrate that child life is busy, exciting, purposeful, serious—all from the child's standpoint—and that throughout this busy childhood occurs the business of growing up and learning.

In order that growing up and learning may be understood better and that those working with children may be better qualified to guide children's growing up and learning, certain terms and generalizations ought to be understood very clearly. It is assumed that the student will encounter the details of these areas in other courses; hence the paragraphs that follow are not intended to be a complete treatise on human growth, development, and learning but are deliberately restricted to a few fundamental considerations with which the beginning student of elementary education ought to become familiar.

A Few Definitions

In any professional field it is important that terms be clearly defined and accurately used. If the members of a profession do not use its vocabulary with accuracy, nothing but confusion can result. It is urged, therefore, that the reader examine carefully the definitions that follow.¹

Growth means increment or change toward a more mature state. It is to be distinguished from learning by (a) its normal occurrence in a given organism under ordinary environmental conditions, (b) its relative independence of particular cultural circumstances, (c) its gradualness, and (d) its durability or permanence. Growth may be thought of as accretionary in that it is characterized exclusively by increment of existing substance, structure, or function. In this sense, growth is purely quantitative, qualitative changes or changes in the quantitative relations among elements or changes in organization being absent. We thus speak of growth in height, growth in weight, or growth in the size of the organs of the body. But growth may also be thought of as developmental in character; in this sense growth is characterized by the emergence of new features, changes in the quantitative relation among elements, or changes in organization. In the latter sense we think of changes in the functions or functioning of organs, new uses to which the muscles may be put, or the appearance of new attributes like the growth of hair on various parts of the body.

Physical growth is defined as the increase in the size of a structure or organ by which the structure or organ takes on the form characteristic for the individual, as determined by the original germ plasm. *Mental growth* is defined as the gradual quantitative increase in the characteristic capacities of an individual to perceive, to learn, to feel, and to act, as implied in the original cells. In a sense all growth is

¹These definitions have been summarized from the *Dictionary of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945) and Willard C. Olson, *Child Development* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1949), pp. 3-6.

physical in nature in that we are referring to changes or increases in the parts of the body. The only special merit in using the terms *physical growth* and *mental growth* is to make sure that we are understood clearly when we refer to phases of growth relating to mental life. Mental growth can be more clearly understood when we think of the changes that take place in the nervous system and in the size and convolutions of the brain as the child gets older. We know that the number, size, complexity, and functioning of the nerve cells increase or change. The child at birth cannot see or hear well, but before long his nervous system has grown so that he has this capacity.

Development means increasing or perfecting the functional possibilities of any structure or capacity after it has matured. Development may be thought of as qualitative in character. It may involve change in structure but usually refers to change in function, complexity, organization, integration, capacity, or efficiency. A six-year-old child may have good vision in the physical sense, but he acquires the type of usage of the eyes that permits accurate discrimination in reading. The gradual acquisition of appropriate functioning of the eyes represents development. Similarly, a child may have all the physical qualifications essential for riding a bicycle, but he needs to develop the appropriate use of his body and capacities in order that he may ride the bicycle. Such an acquisition constitutes development and calls for changes in organization, integration, and complexity of the functioning of the various body elements involved.

Growth and development are naturally closely interrelated. Development is not possible until growth has taken place, but each increment of growth makes new types or degrees of development possible, and optimum development coordinate with each growth stage tends to encourage further growth. The net result, a continuously interacting cycle of growth and development, no doubt helps to explain the frequently appearing phrase "growth and development" in educational literature. Because of the close interdependent relation between these two it is not always easy to determine which one an observed phenomenon in child life represents. It is important, nevertheless, that the distinction be kept in mind because the relation of the two concepts affects curriculum and instructional practices, and, in particular, it guides the teacher in her work with individual children.

Maturation is the progression of growth up to the point in time when the structure or capacity is ready to perform its normal function in the life of the individual. It is the process of cellular, organic, and functional growth of an organism. Thus we think of maturation of teeth to the point at which they can be used for chewing food, or the maturation of muscles and bones to the point at which a child is able

to walk. Many tasks that children and youth must master—designated by Havighurst² as the developmental tasks of life—cannot be mastered until maturation of certain parts of the body has taken place. In many instances crude or partial performance is possible at certain age levels, but complete performance must be delayed until full maturation of the organs or structures has taken place. The various stages in the child's effort to walk are illustrative of such a progression. Each of the stages of creeping, standing by holding on to a chair, and walking alone across the room is dependent upon the maturation of the organs and structures required for that activity.

Maturity designates the point, or time, in the growth of a structure or a capacity when it becomes capable of performing the function that it normally is to perform in life. Maturity may be thought of as the stage at which maturation has ceased and growth and development have reached their maximum. We think of emotional maturity as representing the emotional pattern of an adult who has progressed through the emotional stages characteristic of infancy, childhood, and adolescence and is now fitted to deal successfully with reality. Mental maturity means the stage of complete mental growth beyond which no further growth takes place.

Learning means change in response or behavior caused partly or wholly by experience, such "experience" being in the main conscious, but sometimes including significant unconscious elements, as is common in motor learning. Learning usually takes place in a setting in which the individual faces a situation sufficiently novel that old responses will not suffice. A new response is called for or failure confronts the individual. If the person is fortunate, he will be able to contrive a response new to him and adequate to cope with the novel situation. Such contriving we call "learning." Learning as a process thus engages the individual in creative activity, for he must contrive or create a new type of response. The result of learning is new information, new insight, new skill, a changed attitude, and changed behavior.

Salisbury has given a very illuminating discourse on the relation between growth, maturation, and learning. It is quoted here because it gives further meaning to the definitions previously presented.

Learning is a process of emergent adaptation. In experience the usual is always mixed with some degree of the unusual, and various levels of behavior are involved in meeting situations. It is impossible to tell where growth leaves off and maturation begins; the learning processes are joined with growth and maturation in a unified development. Early in life, the

² Robert J. Havighurst, *Human Development and Education* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1953), p. 2.

child begins to reach for things; later, he begins to walk; and then he may be soon found climbing chairs to get into cupboards. Such an exploit is told of Jimmie when he was much younger than now, and in this narrative we see how growth merges into maturation and maturation merges into learning

to bring his ability to a level adequate for the performance. Hunger was as native to Jimmie as to any child; his reflexes for balance had developed, and his walking and pushing and climbing of chairs had matured to a stage adequate for the venture. He had learned that jam satisfied hunger, that it pleased even when he was not really hungry; indeed, the sight of it generally made him dissatisfied until he had some of it. On this particular day, the stage was set in the outward circumstances of jam that could be seen in the cupboard, and inwardly the stage was set through the products of growth, maturation, and learning. Then came the first journey to the jam, emergent from the setting of outer and inner circumstances. This was an adaptation indeed; jam was



The first journey to the jam.

spied on the cupboard shelf, a plan of action was conceived in a flash, and forthwith child, chair, cupboard, and jam were related in an orderly pattern of behavior as the chair was pushed to the cupboard, the child climbed to the chair seat, then to the waist-high ledge of the cupboard, and thus to the jam. Jam in hand, Jimmie came to rest on the ledge, to discover that it was a long way to the floor. He had reached the level of present capacity; he had got up but could not get down, and presently he reverted to a less ingenious means of meeting a difficulty by crying for his mother to help him down.

Who would attempt the complete untangling of levels of behaviors in such a performance? When we recall that these adaptations are the organism's means for maintaining the unity of its life, is it not reasonable to find growth, maturation, and learning merged in the developments that made jam getting a unified performance?

Although these adaptations result in this very practical unity, they nevertheless always present two aspects to the observer. Looked at from one point of view, jam, chair, and cupboard are seen as the starting point in Jimmie's enterprise; they are seen as the situation without, which initiates the activity within. Looked at from the other point of view, the performance is made possible only through the activity of the boy, activity that is persistently exercised in one way or another, day after day and month

after month. This active boy is a product of years of growth which have added new tissues to old, which have led to the differentiation and specialization of tissues; maturation has brought the developing organism nearer to maturity; added to these, learning has had the result that Jimmie knows *and does many things*. He has learned the use of chairs and cupboards, learned to climb chairs, learned that jam is good to eat; and, finally, he has learned something of himself in relation to chairs, cupboard, and jam.

These various adaptations are always directed to situations without. Breathing is senseless without air; dust in the eye makes blinking purposive; family life of the present and possibly of the future gives point to playing with dolls in childhood; chairs and cupboards are the occasions for climbing. Jam without and, within, hunger and appetite and the ability to climb join in setting the stage for the creative pattern of behavior found in Jimmie's new enterprise. Life at all levels seems to be relational in its nature; growth, maturation, and learning are different aspects of the continuous process of establishing working relations with the world without.³

Generalizations Pertaining to Children's Growth and Development⁴

Exact research on an extensive scale regarding children's growth and development has been conducted in the United States and in other countries for more than thirty years. The gradual accumulation, synthesis, and interpretation of data have resulted in a long list of major and minor generalizations about the many-sided phases of child life. The discussion that follows is restricted to those major generalizations pertinent to the work of the teacher.

Growth and development are the result of interaction. In the past the study of man was concerned with the development of mind, body, and spirit as separate entities. Today it is realized that all these phases work together as the individual seeks to satisfy basic needs. Manifestations of these basic needs are constantly causing a state of disequilibrium in the individual, and it is only as the organism readjusts

³ By permission from *Human Development and Learning*, by Frank Seely Salisbury. Copyright 1939. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., pp. 155-158.

⁴ The material for this section was summarized from the following sources. Olson, *op. cit.*, Chaps. 3 and 7; Marion E. Breckenridge and E. Lee Vincent, *Child Development* (3d ed., Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1955), Chap. 1; Elizabeth B. Hurlock, *Child Development* (2d ed., New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950), Chap. 2; Louis P. Thorpe, *Child Psychology and Development* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946), Chap. 7, *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, Yearbook, 1950 (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1950), Chap. 4; Glenn Myers Blair, R. Stewart Jones, and Ray H. Simpson, *Educational Psychology* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1954), Chap. 2.

itself internally or interacts with the environment that equilibrium is restored. This interaction is possible because of the fact that the human organism consists of interdependent functioning structures—bones, muscles, glands, and nervous system—organized and unified. Biologically man seeks to sustain life within the resources and possibilities of its environment, and much of his behavior represents a perfectly normal and logical interaction between the organism and its environment. This biological organism, however, does not act alone in the process of interaction; for example, if the satisfaction of a need calls into play the physical structures of the organism, the manner in which these structures will interact with the environment is influenced by the creative mind of the person and by the conscience that has developed a set of moral values for that particular individual. The “well-being” of the person depends upon the smoothness and unification of the functioning of all phases of his being. Inharmonious functioning often produces conflicts within the person and between him and an environment designed for the “normally growing” child. The growth characteristics of a child are the end products of an interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic forces.

Growth and development are complex and interrelated. The second most important thing we have learned about children is that the processes of growth and development are very complex and are interrelated. The biological complexity of the human organism is at least somewhat familiar to all who have studied human physiology. If to the biological complexities we add those thousands of other variations that result from the different ways in which different individuals interact with environmental factors, we gain some vision of what is meant by the statement that “growth and development are complex.” No one should expect simple formulas or simple remedies or techniques in the matter of understanding and guiding children’s lives.

The interrelatedness of the various phases of growth, the various phases of development, and the interplay of growth factors and developmental factors are common knowledge; but the real significance of these interrelations is far from common knowledge. Such phrases as “the child as a whole” and “the child brings his whole family and neighborhood to school with him each day” have become empty platitudes. Nothing short of extensive, scholarly study can provide real insight into the true significance of the interrelatedness of growth and development.

Physical, intellectual, and social growth and development are definitely and significantly interrelated. Changes in interests, attitudes, and purposes are closely related to conditions of physical growth. Children who show marked deviations in maturity are sometimes

subject to anxieties or exhibit patterns of withdrawal as a result of being different from the group. Periods of marked acceleration of physical growth are usually accompanied by definite modifications in social behavior. Freedom from emotional strain is important for normal growth and health. Gland secretions are factors in producing growth and body form, and directly and indirectly condition behavior. The rate and amount of energy output vary with the child and are also factors in his behavior. The extent and rate of physical development and quality of the physique attained are dependent in part upon conditions in the individual's environment during the period of growth.

These much-abbreviated general principles become meaningful only as one sees their counterpart in children of one's personal acquaintance. One thinks of James, whose recent rapid spurt of growth in height has left him quite awkward for a time and who shuns all social activities and games that call for fine muscular coordination. There is six-year-old Mary whose general developmental status is equal to that of a typical five-year-old; Mary seems to have no interest in beginning reading and makes no progress with it in the first grade. Eight-year-old Susan has been protected and pampered by overzealous grandparents who live in her home; Susan can't even button her own coat, is subject to frequent crying spells in school because the other children ignore her, and is not liked very much by the other third-graders. Paul has had frequent prolonged illnesses; he is thin and does not look strong. Since he cannot be a leader in playground games, he strives for attention by nudging everyone as he saunters up and down the aisles in school. Development is integrated: each aspect of the child's life affects every other.

Development proceeds from general to specific responses. In all phases of development the child's responses are of a general sort before they become specific. Development is a process both of expansion and of specialization. Each new phase of development appears first in a gross form, from which emerge more skilled and specialized processes. The infant's first movements are general, total body reactions. He moves his whole body at one time, instead of moving any one part of it. His first arm movements are general and random; later he can reach for a specific object. At first his legs engage in random kicking; later he can coordinate the leg muscles well enough to crawl or walk.

The baby can see large objects before he can see small ones. When the young child is learning to dress himself, the whole body wiggles with activity; later, as skill is gained, most of the act of dressing is accomplished with the use of the hands only. In the field of language, the baby engages in general, babbling sounds before he speaks words. In concept formation the child uses "toy" for all playthings before he

learns the names of specific toys; he applies "dog" to all dogs before he learns the names of specific dogs. At first his fears are general and undifferentiated; later they become specific and are characterized by various types of reactions in different situations. If a large object, like an automobile, is brought into view, the initial impression is of the gross features; later, specific details are examined. In the learning of a poem, the whole poem is read and thought through before one begins to memorize selected stanzas. Basic knowledge and skills proceed from whole to part.

Growth and development follow an orderly pattern. The growth and development of human beings are not of a haphazard, unorganized type. Rather, they occur in an orderly, patterned fashion. The growth of nearly all individuals seems to follow a common pattern or cycle. The *order* of developmental events is quite constant from one child to another. Each stage is the outcome of the one preceding it and is the prerequisite for the one that follows. No child, for example, learns to walk without having first learned to stand. For the great mass of children, these patterns or stages of growth and development follow each other in a sufficiently fixed sequence so that it is possible to establish age and sequence norms that represent the average for large numbers of children of the same age or developmental stage. Such norms are very useful in appraising the progress of individuals but they should not become standards for rating children.

Correlation and not compensation is the rule. Somehow there developed years ago the common belief that compensation was the general rule in human growth and development. It was thought that children with superior mentalities had weak bodies and were subject to frequent illness; conversely, children with strong bodies were thought to have weak minds. Extensive research has demonstrated repeatedly the fallacy of this common belief. Actually it has been shown that many desirable qualities tend to be found together in the same individual. This "going together" of the various phases of growth and development is known as the "theory of correlation." In the physical realm, height, weight, motor skill, resistance to disease, longevity, and similar factors are most often positively correlated clusters in the same individual. It is not true that the child who is above average in one trait will always be below average in others or vice versa. Children with superior intelligence are generally above average in size, health, sociability, and special aptitudes. Mental defectives tend to be smaller in stature than normal children.

The process of growth and development is continuous. The process of growing up is a continuous one, an unbroken sequence in which each new phase emerges from the old and is directed toward

what is to come later. Here again, research has stepped in to correct previous unfounded popular opinion. We used to be told that children grew by "fits and starts," by "jerks and jumps," or by distinctly earmarked stages, such as "the gang age" and "adolescence." On the contrary, growth and development represent a "continuum," a process that operates gradually from the moment of conception to maturity and then on to the end of life. No traits, whether physical or mental, develop suddenly. Each new emergent stage is nothing more than the gradual unfolding, into observable maturational functioning, of processes that have been going on for a long time. The appearance of the baby's first tooth suggests that it appeared suddenly, but that tooth had been in the process of formation since the fifth fetal month. The same gradualness of development is characteristic of walking, talking, and social behaviors.

The gradualness and continuity of the growth and development processes are further illustrated by the overlapping of the interests of children of different age groups. Studies have shown that certain books are read extensively by children in a wide range of grades. Certain games, likewise, are chosen by children of several age groups. There are no sudden changes in the interests and activities of children as they progress up the age or developmental scale.

Growth and development are marked by fluctuations in rate. Although growth and development follow an orderly, patterned sequence and the process is a continuous one, it is not uniform. Not all parts of the body grow at the same rate, nor do all phases of mental development proceed equally. Human beings show great changes in the velocity of growth from conception to maturity. The first cycle of accelerated growth starts early in the prenatal period and reaches its peak approximately at birth. Deceleration continues from birth to the third or fourth year; growth then continues at a fairly uniform rate until the beginning of the puberal cycle. This cycle, lasting from four to seven years, is followed by a period of from one to five years during which the rate of growth diminishes.

Different stages in the growth cycle are usually marked by differential rates of growth in different parts of the organism and by changes in the rate of growth of the whole organism. At birth, the various parts of the body have a proportional relation to each other different from their relation in later life. If the body is to attain adult proportions, inequalities in growth must occur. The brain and spinal cord have attained nine-tenths of their full growth by the age of six, and the nervous system as a whole has virtually completed its growth in most individuals by the age of twelve. The several parts of the muscle system mature at different rates, the leg muscles developing at a different rate

from that of the back muscles or the arm muscles. The achievement of maximum growth in sheer size or weight does not necessarily mean that a given structure has attained full development in the articulations, tissue quality, or other modifications that make optimum functioning possible.

The varying growth rates of bodily structures have many implications for the social and emotional adjustment of the child. The best-known illustration of this is the so-called awkwardness during early adolescence; growth in gross body structure has raced ahead while growth of the muscles and coordination of the nervous system have not progressed at the same rate. Facial appearance and body proportions at variance with the child's conception of normality may have profound effects upon his attitude toward himself and others.

These fluctuations in the rate of growth and development of the various parts of the organism do not seem to create unbalance of the organism as a whole. On the contrary, the organism as a whole seems to maintain a relatively uniform type of increment. The fluctuations tend to balance each other so that total growth tends toward stable increments made up of counterbalancing fluctuations.

Many forms of behavior are characteristically normal for different age groups. Out of the fact that growth and development are orderly, sequential, and continuous arise certain factors that give specialized characteristics to children at different periods of time as they progress along the route from birth to maturity. During the preschool years phases of physical growth and development of control of the body stand out predominantly. At this age the child's behavior is characterized by incessant activity and social relations that are self-centered. Group or team play is not very common. In late childhood sociability and social cooperation become noticeable. We also speak of the awkwardness of early adolescence. At certain periods there is open hostility between boys and girls, but before long the man-hating preadolescents have become man-crazy teen-agers. The boys who hated washing their hands, face, and ears become interested in personal grooming. These specialized forms of behavior characteristic of certain age-periods are normal expressions of the interaction between the child and his environment at different stages in the growth and development of the organism as a whole.

Much of children's behavior judged inappropriate or antisocial by teachers and parents simply represents normal behavior in terms of the efforts children make to adjust to and utilize their environment at their respective stages of development. The child who dashes in front of an adult without excusing himself probably does not mean to be impolite; in his eagerness to pursue a goal he simply takes the shortest route and

forgets to excuse himself. The boy who is proud of the shabbiness of his attire is a perfectly normal boy; adult standards for good grooming have no usefulness for him at his age. The chief problem is that adults expect children to live by adult standards; they are unfamiliar with—or have forgotten—the characteristic behaviors of children at different stages along the route to maturity.

Each individual grows up according to the unfolding of his own growth pattern. The old adage which says "There are no two people exactly alike" can now be changed to say "No two persons grow up in exactly the same way." In spite of the fact that the growth of nearly all individuals seems to follow a common pattern, each individual grows up in his own unique way and at his own rate. Deviations from normal growth patterns are not uncommon. The great majority of these deviations are actually normal for the individual; at the completion of the growth period most of the deviation has disappeared.

Individual variations in growing up arise out of the fact that periods of accelerated or decelerated growth do not occur in all children at exactly the same time interval in their lives. Some get their first teeth months earlier or later than others. Some talk months earlier or later than others. Each variation in timing of any one phase of growth or development exerts its corresponding influence on other phases. A child who is delayed in walking will show other variations contingent upon ability to walk. In similar fashion, a child who begins talking at a somewhat younger age than the average will reveal corresponding variations in activities contingent upon talking. But whatever the variations may be, the organism, in its growth processes, maintains an internally unified, balanced whole which reflects a general forward movement of growth and development.

Although the growth patterns of children are more alike than they are different, very few children have identical growth patterns. Each child's has enough peculiarities of its own to make it different from others. The evidence suggests that the growth patterns of individuals are inherited.

There are some sex differences in growth and development. While boys and girls show certain similarities of growth, there are sex differences which should be recognized. Girls consistently exceed boys in the rate of anatomic (not physiological) development from birth to age eighteen. There are significant differences between the sexes in the body proportions ultimately achieved, and in the ages at which different growth stages are reached. Growth curves in average body weight generally show girls to be lighter than boys up to the age of twelve, heavier than boys up to the age of fifteen, then lighter than boys after the age fifteen. Girls, on the average, show their initial spurt

in height and weight at about eleven years of age and they attain their maximum stature at an average age of fifteen. Boys have their initial spurt in height and weight at about age thirteen and reach maximum stature after age seventeen. Girls thus reach the period of most rapid growth and also attain maximum growth approximately two years earlier than boys.

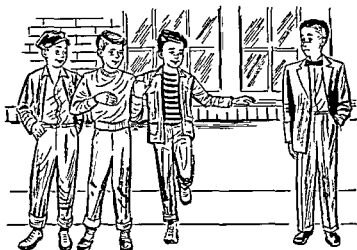
At given chronological ages, up to the end of adolescence, girls have attained approximately 10 per cent greater acceleration in physiological age than boys. The puberal cycle, which represents one of the periods of rapid growth, usually occurs within the age ranges of nine to sixteen for girls and ten to seventeen for boys. During the latter half of the puberal cycle girls increase markedly in hip width while boys show a similar growth in shoulder width. These several variations in rate of growth and development have pronounced social and psychological implications and account for many of the difficulties the two sexes have in getting along together at the different age-periods.

Growth and development have personal and social aspects. Every child grows up in some kind of social environment, that is, in some kind of relation to other people. These social relations are highly personal, particularly during early childhood, when the child is dependent upon others for food, clothing, and shelter. For most children these social relations with members of the immediate family remain on a highly personal plane throughout life. As the child's sphere of associates widens, his social relations extend and increase in complexity.

The child's social relations are as much a part of his environment while growing up as anything else one might name. Personality includes a child's responses in social situations. Specific personality traits exhibited by the child vary in different types of social settings. Traits revealed at school may be quite different from those exhibited at home. The child's personal-social behavior is the result of a developmental process. Inward reactions are often more indicative of personal-social adjustment than are outward responses.

The child's personal-social behavior is often greatly concerned with the establishment and maintenance of satisfactory relations with his peers. Learning to adjust oneself to human beings with their many variations in mental abilities, emotions, customs, and opinions is a continuous process that requires many direct experiences. This process begins in the home, which is an important agency in shaping personality during all stages of growth and development. The home should at all times give the child the feeling of belonging vital to his personal-social development. At school the teacher's personality is often an important factor in the personal-social development of boys and girls. The teacher's degree of understanding and buoyancy will tend to be

reflected in the behavior of the pupils. In other words, the quality of group living at school also determines the type of personal-social relations and values that boys and girls develop.



"No jeans—no gang."

Growth and development have emotional aspects. A person's feelings are always with him. What a child can or cannot do at any given age is always accompanied by an emotional tone that is an integral part of all behavior. Feelings, emotions, and attitudes are those aspects of development that refer to the quality of a child's experience in his attempts to reach a goal. The attainment of a goal is accompanied by pleasant emotions or feelings, while the blocking of an activity or the thwarting of a desire results in unpleasant emotions or feelings. Pleasant feelings accompany unobstructed progress toward a goal.

The relation between the affective life and other aspects of growth and development is an index of the child's personality pattern. A child's personality may be overweighed with emotional conflict centering around problems of parental relations, peer relations, and sex; or it may lack emotional richness, or be apathetic. A balance of freedom and restraint in the individual's environment is basic to emotional health. Balance is achieved in exercising self-control and in experiencing responsibility rather than in responding to control from without. Continued forcing and depriving the child may result in insecurity.

Wholesome emotional maturing is dependent upon certain conditions and experiences. The maintenance of an appropriate rhythm of

rest and activity is important. Extremes, either in adherence to rigid scheduling or in lack of it, do not foster emotional maturing. Group relations modify the child's emotional stability. The emotionally stable child has a sense of belonging to his groups, such as the family, the school, and peers. The unstable child may have no feeling of security in any group. Self-confidence and a feeling of adequacy are important factors in emotional health. The child who lacks techniques of participation with others, or who is handicapped by his background, or whose talents have not been discovered needs an area of competence to achieve emotional balance. Well-balanced emotional development depends upon a wide variety of group experiences.

Attitudes play a significant role in development. The individual evaluates his own actions and those of others on the basis of his attitudes. The balanced individual can evaluate his own behavior as short of his ideals, yet attempt to improve in the direction of constantly redefined ideals. The ability to face reality is characteristic of the emotionally mature individual.

The Dynamics of Child Life

For decades child psychologists have been interested in determining the dynamics of child behavior. Research workers, teachers, and parents are constantly in search of the motivation underlying the activity of children. They want to know why young organisms act as they do and "what makes them tick." The basic problem is "What is the origin or cause and the nature of the motives that impel children to carry on their ceaseless activity?" An understanding of the answer to this question is most important for teachers, parents, and others who undertake to guide children's education, for in it lie the cues for curriculum planning, methods of teaching, and the motivation of school work.

Fundamental needs. Modern child psychology explains child behavior as stress-relieving activity motivated by fundamental needs. Need is the origin of most of children's behavior; hence understanding the basic needs of children is of utmost importance to those who would understand the motivation of children's activities. Classification of the needs of developing children follows.

1. **BIOLOGICAL NEEDS.** Kimball Young³ has explained the term "needs" as referring to a particular condition of disequilibrium in the organism that serves to bring about a push or pull toward or away from an object or situation. Among the most common needs are those classed

³ Kimball Young, *Personality and Problems of Adjustment* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952), pp. 45-46.

is aroused to activity to secure the means for satisfying the need, so that body equilibrium may again be restored.

As long as the person remains alive, there is the continuous recurrence of needs. Being alive means that body processes are *going on* and this "ongoingness" means continuity and recurrence. Food is eaten and digested and thus creates need for more food to be digested, and so on. Throughout this cyclic behavior the organism—the individual—strives to maintain equilibrium, or various types of equilibriums, within itself.

The setting for learning. The cycle of activity just described operates in the process of learning. Dollard and Miller^{*} have described this cycle as being composed of four factors fundamental to learning: (1) *drive* or motivation is caused by the tension resulting from a felt need arousing the organism to seek satisfaction of this need; (2) *cue* is the stimulus or combination of stimuli that determine when and where the individual will react and the kind of response that will be made; (3) *response* is the act or thought—what the person does to relieve the tension caused by the felt need; and (4) *reward* is the satisfaction of a felt need, which results in reinforcement that strengthens the tendency for a response to be repeated.

Learning takes place when a child meets a need by procedures he has not used before, that is, when he contrives a new way of meeting his need. If a person's need can be satisfied, if a desire or goal can be attained by repeating an act that was learned some time ago, it is a mere repetition of a previous acquisition; there is no opportunity to learn anything new. For example, ten-year-old Mary has never had the opportunity to learn to cook because her need for food has always been met by food prepared by her mother or by someone else. One afternoon she comes in from play quite hungry and finds her mother too ill to prepare the evening meal. Mary is thus confronted with a problem. *Motivated* by her own hunger and the desire to win the approval of other members of the family, Mary follows the directions given by her mother (*cue*) and is able to prepare a simple meal (*response*) that not only satisfies her own hunger but also brings her praise from other members of the family (*reward*). Thus, through the cycle of activity in meeting these basic needs, Mary has learned something new.

The settings for learning consist of the problems that confront us in our efforts to meet our fundamental needs. This may sound very simple, and in its basic elements it is simple, but learning becomes very complex in the practical affairs of everyday living and in the circum-

^{*} John Dollard and Neal E. Miller, *Personality and Psychotherapy* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950), pp. 30-47.

stances under which people endeavor to meet their needs. The complexity of learning can be illustrated by one of the tasks of middle childhood in the list of developmental tasks previously quoted from Havighurst*—that of learning to read. This task arises from a combination of several factors: physical maturation, the pressure of cultural processes upon the individual, and the desires and values of the child's own personality. The operation of these various factors make the task of learning to read a complex process.

A specific illustration of the complexity of the task of learning to read might be seen in a third-grade classroom. From the classroom library John has selected a book from which he will read a story to the class during "Sharing Time." He is reading the story to himself; first, because it is a new story and he is interested in finding out what happens in it, and second, because he is preparing for the oral presentation. Suddenly he is confronted by an unfamiliar word. Immediately the cycle of activity begins. There is inner tension caused by the manifestations of several needs combining to arouse the organism (*drive or motivation*). The need to find out or to satisfy his own curiosity is strong because it is a new story and he really wants to find out what happens; since he is to read the story aloud to the group, the need for success and achievement before the group is also present.

These needs arouse him to do something about the situation. He has learned some word-attack skills to use in working out new words; hence he begins to look for clues that will help him "unlock" the word. He notices that the new word looks exactly like another word that he knows except for the beginning letter (*cue*). Knowing the sound of this letter and being able to substitute this sound for the beginning sound of the word he does know (*response*), he is able to pronounce the new word and as soon as he pronounces it, he recognizes it as a word that he knows and uses in his oral vocabulary. He responds further by rereading the sentence, using another cue (*context clue*), and finds that the new word fits into the meaning of the sentence.

His reward is twofold. His need for satisfaction of curiosity is met in that he can now read the sentence and know what is happening in the story. Later in the day, when he shares this story with others, he is able to read fluently without hesitation over unknown words; hence, his need for achievement is met in the feeling of success and the commendation of his classmates.

Thus the task of learning to read involves the repetition of many cycles of activity as the child responds to cues that help him satisfy basic needs that can be met through the act of reading.

* Havighurst, *op cit.*, p. 4.

Generalizations Relating to the Educative Process¹⁰

Conscious education aims to improve life. Learning means that progressive changes are taking place in the individual's patterns of behavior as he endeavors to adjust himself to the demands of life. The educative process is the process whereby learning takes place. It thus concerns itself with the ways in which the learner proceeds from one stage of development to another. More specifically, the educative process concerns itself with helping children to contrive the most effective and the most desirable solutions to their problems, so that what they learn may be most useful to themselves and to society. The educative process thus involves the learner, the ways of learning, the materials and situations for learning, and the guidance of learning activities. All this is a very complex and very extended affair. The paragraphs that follow merely represent an abbreviated series of statements about some of the more important generalizations that should be understood clearly by every teacher.

Learning and behavior are caused. There has been so much misinformation about the role of heredity that many persons still believe that everything a person is results from heredity. An accurate understanding of the respective roles of heredity and environment is prerequisite to an understanding of the educative process. The stature to which a person *can* grow and develop is determined largely by heredity, but the *kind* of person he will be is determined largely by environment, that is, by the character and quality of the education that he has had. Whether a person has the *capacity* for a high degree or a mediocre degree of proficiency in mechanics, typing, music, or public speaking is set by hereditary factors, but whether he actually becomes as skilled in mechanics, typing, music, honesty, or public speaking as he could be depends upon his education. Whether a child becomes a thief or an honest citizen, a liar or a truthful person, a cooperative individual or a one-man team, English-speaking or Spanish-speaking, illiterate or able to read and write, depends upon his education.

¹⁰ In the preparation of this section many helpful suggestions were gleaned from the following sources: William H. Kilpatrick, *A Reconstructed Theory of the Educative Process* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935); Olson, *op. cit.*, Chap. 7; *The Psychology of Learning*, Forty-first Yearbook, Part II, 1942, and *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part I, 1950, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press), William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities* (2d ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952); Lee J. Cronbach, *Educational Psychology* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1954), Chap. 3.

The learning and behavior of a child and his development through time are caused. The influencing factors and the processes whereby learning and behavior are evoked and by which development is shaped can be described with considerable, but not complete, accuracy. This implies that agreed-upon aims of elementary education can be accomplished with most children through the influence of adequately planned and realized wholesome conditions, interpersonal relations, and coordinated experiences. Children's education is largely responsible for the kinds of persons that they become. The causes of behavior, learning, and development are multiple, complex, and interrelated. Educational policy and classroom practice should guard against oversimplification of how learning can be induced, of why a child acts as he does, and of how a given experience influences his development.

The organism acts as a whole. In each instance of behavior the whole organism, and in some measure each constituent part, is involved. Making an oral response to a sarcastic remark by someone involves not only the mind and the vocal cords; the emotions and even a person's position (of sitting or standing or reclining) may become sufficiently involved to be noticeable to others. Man is not solely a mental-intellectual being. He is a unified organism. Intraorganic relations bring the whole of his being into action in his efforts to find solutions to his problems. Every experience involves and affects the whole child.

The child and his environment are inseparable entities. A person's behavior does not take place in a vacuum; he is always behaving or reacting in relation to persons, objects, or situations. Each person draws upon one or more phases of his environment to satisfy his needs. Thus the environment is as intimate a part of each experience as is the organism. The complexity of this interrelation can be visualized only as one realizes the complexity of the human organism and the complexity of the multitudinous environmental situations. An illustration may also help to clarify the point. A child becomes hungry; if the environment (the home) has been providing a normal supply of food in the customary manner, the child most likely will help himself in accordance with socially approved methods; if, however, the environment does not provide food in the usual manner, the child *will* seek food, and he must obtain it in the best way he can; so he may rummage in neighborhood garbage cans or steal it at a store or take it away from another child who has some. The way in which the environment makes available the resources necessary for meeting needs and the kinds of resources available in the environment have much to do with the way children behave and what they learn.

Learning takes place in problem-solving situations. All learning involves the solving of problems. Learning takes place when, in his goal-seeking efforts, the child acquires a new way of behaving (a habit,

skill, knowledge, or understanding). Although man is capable of two types of behavior, reflex and problem solving, only the problem-solving type of behavior results in learning. When the organism faces a sufficiently novel situation, old responses will not suffice. If success is to ensue, a new response not heretofore used by that person, at least not in this type of situation, must be created. Each newly learned response makes the child capable of types of behavior of which he was not capable before such learning had taken place.

Life that is rich with learning must be filled with problem situations. To live richly is to experience many conflicts. In the very nature of things, human beings must accept a certain amount of frustration and maladjustment. The integrated personality is not one that experiences no conflicts and no frustrations, but one that has learned to face reality, one that has acquired problem-solving techniques that retain integrity of personality.

It stands to reason that if learning is to progress in a wholesome, optimum manner, the nature and the difficulty of the problems that confront children must be adapted to their developmental levels. Problems that are too difficult for a given child either create insurmountable frustration or are not even recognized by the child as problems. Those that are too easy offer no challenge and no opportunity for learning. Each child brings to each problem situation his existing growth and development status (his readiness) with its skills, knowledge, attitudes, and understandings. These constitute his working equipment. The new problem must be of such difficulty that he can appropriately apply his working equipment to contrive a solution that, through its very contriving, enables new ways of behaving to appear.

Learning implies activity. From what has been said thus far it follows logically that learning takes place while the individual is engaged in activity of some sort. The very nature of the educative process requires that the individual himself work through the problem situations. This experience may be characterized by varying degrees of overt physical activity; it may be vicarious, it may deal with real things, or it may be a combination of the two. But the organism must be actively engaged in going through the experience; activity must be inherent in a purposive, problem-solving situation that is a truly goal-seeking enterprise for the individual.

Creativity is an essential aspect of all learning. Problem solving requires that the individual contrive a new response to meet a novel situation successfully. To contrive a new response implies creativity. Creativity is thus an inherent aspect of all learning. This characteristic of the educative process should make it clear that creativity or creative work is not limited to art and music or to work with actual materials. It is an essential aspect of all activities that promote learning.

The individual must be motivated to learn. It was pointed out earlier that children's needs arise out of the functioning of the organism and the interactions between organism and environment. When the equilibrium of the organism is upset by a change either within or without the organism there ensues a stress, or an urge. The organism strives to maintain a wholesome, satisfying equilibrium. Out of this effort grows behavior. Behavior is thus goal seeking. Basically, it is purposive. Motivation arises out of the child's desire to meet his needs. Interest is that *relation between* the pupil's present tendencies toward and capacities for behavior *and* the immediate goal toward which he is working; interest prevails when the child regards the goal and the effort to achieve it as worth while.

Motivation relates to the energizing of behavior. Adequate motivation involves efficient behavior. Motivating conditions initiate and energize activity, direct the organism's behavior, and dispose it to select some responses and to disregard or to eliminate others. Motivation serves to direct and to regulate behavior toward a goal.

All learning involves motives. The motive in a given learning situation determines the quality and direction of the activity that will be carried out. The strength of the desire to participate in a learning situation is usually related to the needs of the child. To motivate learning is to make use of already existing motives or to stimulate the discovery of new ones. Since needs, interests, desires, and goals result in part from earlier experiences, the teacher, by selecting activities within the framework of the learner's needs, may greatly influence future desires and interests.

Many circumstances influence the nature and intensity of motives. The morale of the school has a significant influence upon motivation. *An individual child's relations within the class and the school affect motivation.* Teacher-pupil relations influence the desire to learn. Any procedure that lowers or raises his prestige motivates the learner, but not always in desirable directions. The child learns more effectively when tasks are presented that he can understand and accept as being relevant to his world. Procedures that offer opportunity for discovery, exploration, and creativity usually result in efficient learning. The more definite the goal in the eyes of the learner, the more direct his activity and the more efficient the learning. The learner tends to learn more efficiently when he has knowledge of his progress. Motive is the basis of learning.

Worth-while learning situations must be arranged. At any given level of a child's development the variety of motives is so large and the variety of activities so great that children have a wide choice of activities. It becomes necessary, therefore, for someone to select from among the wide array of possible activities those that are most useful for

promoting the types of growth and development indicated by the purposes of education. This is the problem of the curriculum.

Not only must there be a selection of the most useful and appropriate activities, but there must also be appropriate and adequate materials, physical setting, and methods of procedure, so that the activities that have been selected may be carried forward in ways that will result in the desired outcomes. In the selection of activities and in the way in which the activities are conducted there should be extensive cooperative teacher-pupil planning, in order that the goals and the activities may represent the closest possible relation to pupil needs and interests. This is the only way in which to assure a high degree of motivation. These criteria make it imperative that each teacher be accorded considerable freedom in choosing, with her pupils, the particular activities that will engage her class. Such freedom for teachers can be achieved within the framework of broad curriculum planning.

Chapter Summary

The chief business of childhood is growing up and learning. Growth means increment or change toward a more mature state. Development means increasing or perfecting the functional possibilities of any structure or capacity after that structure or capacity has matured. Growth and development are closely interrelated. Maturation is the process of growth up to the point in time when the structure or capacity is ready to perform its normal function in life. Maturity may be thought of as the stage at which maturation has ceased and growth and development have reached their maximum. Learning means change in response or behavior and results in new information, new insight, new skill, a changed attitude, or changed behavior.

The major points made in this chapter consist of the generalizations relating to children's growth and development, the dynamics of child life, and the educative process. These generalizations are as follows:

1. Growth and development are the result of interaction.
2. Growth and development are complex and interrelated.
3. Development proceeds from general to specific responses.
4. Growth and development follow an orderly pattern.
5. Correlation and not compensation is the rule.
6. The process of growth and development is continuous.
7. Growth and development are marked by fluctuations in rate.
8. Many forms of behavior are characteristically normal for different age groups.

9. Each individual grows up according to the unfolding of his own growth pattern.
10. There are some sex differences in growth and development.
11. Growth and development have personal and social aspects.
12. Growth and development have emotional aspects.
13. Modern child psychology explains child behavior as stress-relieving activity motivated by fundamental needs.
14. *The settings for learning consist of the problems that confront us in our efforts to meet our fundamental needs.*
15. Learning takes place when a person meets a need by procedures he has not used before, that is, when the person contrives a new way of meeting his need.
16. Learning and behavior are caused.
17. The organism acts as a whole.
18. The child and his environment are inseparable entities.
19. Learning takes place in problem-solving situations.
20. Learning implies activity.
21. Creativity is an essential aspect of all learning.
22. The individual must be motivated to learn.
23. Worth-while learning situations must be arranged.
24. Learning results in a reorganization of experience and behavior.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Baxter, Bernice, Gertrude M. Lewis, and Gertrude M. Cross. *The Role of Elementary Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1952. Part 2, "Children Grow and Learn."
2. Brogan, Peggy, and Lorene K. Fox. *Helping Children Learn*. New York: World Book Company, 1955. Chap. 1, "Required Conditions for Learning."
3. John Dewey Society. *The American Elementary School*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953. Chap. 3, "Dynamics of Learning in Childhood Education," by Gertrude Hildreth, and Chap. 4, "Emerging Concepts of Child Growth and Development," by Viola Theman.
4. Lee, J. Murray, and Dorris May Lee. *The Child and His Curriculum* (2d ed.). New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Chap. 5, "The Child as a Learner."
5. Frank, L., and N. Frank. *How to Help Your Child in School*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1950. Chap. 2, "How a Young Child Grows and Learns."

Suggested Student Activities

1. Give an example from your own experience of learning something new, describing the experience through the four stages of the cycle of activity—drive, cue, response, and reward.

2. Visit an elementary school and look for the following: (a) ways in which teachers are attempting to meet fundamental needs of children, (b) specific examples of any of the generalizations given in this chapter, pertaining to growth and development or pertaining to the educative process.

3. View the film *Skippy and the Three R's* (16 mm., color or black and white, sound, 29 minutes, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.), looking for the following: (a) examples of the teacher putting into practice her knowledge of principles of learning, (b) examples of the teacher meeting basic needs of children, (c) examples of many types of growth that took place in one school year.



Living with Children

Teaching means living and working with children and guiding their development. Everything that has been said so far in this book, plus a great deal that could not be said because of space limitations, converges in the day-by-day events that make up life at school. The title of this chapter, "Living with Children," was chosen because it conveys so well the spirit in which teachers should approach their work as teachers. It also suggests the emotional orientation that the teacher should constantly have toward the children who compose her classes.

Teaching that embodies the best we now know about encouraging children's development does not mean the process of imparting or "feeding" to children predetermined quantities of knowledge, attitudes, and habits. Teaching means guiding the growth and development of children so that children, individually and in groups, will emerge into the kind of persons that make up a democracy. Such guidance requires extensive familiarity with each child and keen insights regarding his developmental needs. There is sophisticated Johnny whose mother taught him to read at the age of four; now he holds himself aloof with a turned-up nose, scornful of his first-grade classmates who have not yet learned to read and losing no opportunity to belittle their "babyhood." There is James in the sixth grade who cannot read above third-grade level and has little notion about the content of the sixth-grade geography, history, or arithmetic books, but is skilled along mechanical and artistic lines. He is a conscientious helper in his father's grocery store and is always in demand when a ball game is in the making, but in the classroom he feels inferior and compensates for his academic inabilities by mischievous escapades, which annoy the teacher and elicit loud laughs from his classmates. Living and working with

children is the only way in which effective guidance can be given to each and all according to their individual and group problems.

Making Discipline Educative

The real test of a teacher's philosophy and skill in working with children is revealed through the way in which children come to behave as they do in her classroom. Since all behavior is caused, one must look for the reasons and motivating forces behind whatever type of behavior is observed in a classroom or a school as a whole. Let us examine a few *contrasting* situations. In one instance, if the teacher steps out of the room for a while, the children continue their activities without interruption, many of them not even aware of the fact that the teacher has left them; in another class bedlam breaks out the minute the teacher leaves the room. In one school, if a football should accidentally hit and break a window, the children halt for a moment, utter a few exclamations, perhaps express some sympathy for the child whose bad aim caused the broken window, and the game goes on till the end of the play period, at which time the child who broke the window reports the accident to the teacher and principal and offers to pay for a new windowpane; at another school, if a window is broken in a similar incident, the children are pledged to each other not to tell who did it, and the principal must act as detective for several days before he discovers the child who was involved in the accident. In each of these two contrasting cases the children behaved quite differently. There are reasons for these differences: discipline in one instance was quite different from discipline in the other. The cause of this difference is the difference in the way in which teachers lived and worked with children. A study made in Ohio shows that 165 beginning teachers, as well as their administrators, rated the maintaining of discipline the teacher's number-one problem.¹

It is a well-established fact that the success of a teacher is frequently gauged by her skill in handling discipline; that is, her success in eliciting desirable behavior on the part of pupils.² Some teachers coerce pupils into simulated and superficial "good behavior," which remains "good" only as long as the coercing agent is present and is exercising dictatorial power. Other teachers are successful in eliciting desirable behavior on the part of children because the children them-

¹ W. R. Flesher, "The Beginning Teacher," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 24 (January 17, 1945), 12-18.

² Herbert W. Wey, "Why Do Beginning Teachers Fail?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 35 (October, 1951), 55-62; H. W. Foster, "Beginning Teachers Look at Their Problems," *Educational Outlook*, 28 (January, 1954), 61-68.

selves desire to conduct themselves in ways that are mutually satisfying to themselves and to the adults. Both types of teachers would be rated by some persons as good disciplinarians, but to most thoughtful readers there is no argument about which method of securing good discipline is the better. All teachers who wish to work effectively with children must become skillful in discipline; others lose their jobs. The main problem is how to elicit desirable pupil behavior by the most worthwhile methods.

What is discipline? Discipline, as used in this discussion, is defined by the *Dictionary of Education* from the standpoint of the individual and of the group. From the standpoint of the individual, discipline means (1) the process or result of directing or subordinating immediate wishes, impulses, desires, or interests for the sake of an ideal or for the purpose of gaining more effective, dependable action; (2) persistent, active, self-directed pursuit of some selected course of action, even in the face of obstacles or distractions; (3) direct authoritative control over pupil behavior through punishments or rewards or both; and (4) negatively, any restraint of impulses, frequently through distasteful or painful means. From the standpoint of the group, discipline means (1) the characteristic degree and kind of orderliness in a given school or the means by which that order is obtained; (2) the maintenance of conditions conducive to the efficient achievement of the school's functions.

Both the individual and the group approaches to a definition of discipline are pertinent for the teacher. The individual approach identifies the need for the acquisition of values and habits of self-restraint and self-control by every child. Without the acquisition of these values and habits the individual is poorly equipped for effective work and self-maintenance in society, and poorly equipped for satisfying relations with others. Discipline, then, from the individual's standpoint, is incorporated within the purposes of education.

From the group's standpoint, discipline means mutually satisfying human relations; for unless interpersonal and intergroup relations are wholesome, there cannot exist that characteristic degree and kind of orderliness conducive to effective schoolwork. Basically discipline in the most commonly used sense arises out of or is concerned with the problem of creating and maintaining desirable interpersonal and intergroup relations. Discipline in the broad sense is a positive, constructive force that emerges as pupils and teachers develop, discover, and learn ways of working together effectively. Essentially discipline is an educational affair.

What makes discipline good or poor? Since discipline from the group standpoint means that degree of orderliness that permits effective

schoolwork, anything that interferes with orderliness makes for poor discipline and anything that promotes it makes for good discipline. That statement, trite but sound, needs explanation in order that it may be understood properly. "Good" and "poor" need to be defined when they are applied to discipline. Wholesome (socially approved) working relations prevail when there are no conflicts that cannot be resolved by peaceful means without injury or unfair advantage to either party. Conflicts that cannot be thus resolved may be between two individuals, between an individual and a group, or between two groups.

Whether discipline is good or poor depends upon the degree of orderliness desired and the method whereby that orderliness is secured. Is the kind of discipline sought that which produces silence in the classroom so that the drop of a pin is audible? Or is the kind of discipline preferred that which permits the orderly noise and activity reflecting dynamic pupil purposes? There is a choice between orderliness produced by autocratic domination and punishment, and the good conduct resulting from pupil understanding and self-discipline. The problem is to help children develop standards of conduct in the classroom that make for the best possible conditions for learning and development.²

How is good discipline maintained? Pupil conduct that makes for the best possible conditions for learning and development does not happen spontaneously; it has to be achieved. Children are not born with the ideals, attitudes, habits, and skills essential for wholesomely effective human relations. We learned in Chapter 6 that skill in human relations must be learned. The teacher should be the guiding influence in helping children to acquire the desire for and the skill in the kind of human relations upon which a democracy must pin its hopes. This is an important responsibility of all teachers and is not an easy task. There are no formulas for achieving it but there are some principles around which each teacher can develop her methods.

1. The first of these principles has to do with the teacher's concept of discipline. It is something more than obedience and is broader than simply teacher-pupil relations. Discipline includes self-reliance, self-control, initiative, and independence of action and refers to all school experiences.

2. Another of these principles is that good discipline is dependent on an attitude of courtesy and respect prevailing among pupils and between pupils and teachers. Good discipline does not develop in an atmosphere of distrust, suspicion, and fear.

3. A well-disciplined group, or individual, is busy with worthwhile, suitable activities that have been planned cooperatively by pupils

² Fritz Redl and William W. Wattenberg, *Mental Hygiene in Teaching* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co., Inc., 1951), p. 317.

and teacher. This principle suggests the term "permissive," which is used to describe the classroom in which teacher and pupils plan together and share the responsibility for the outcome of their cooperatively made decisions. Each child is free to live and work as a member of a peer group while he enjoys the security derived from having a mature person to rely on when desirable. In the "authoritarian" classroom the child learns to accept discipline imposed by an authoritarian teacher who discourages self-direction and pupil judgment. Not only is there no opportunity in this classroom to learn democratic ways, but children often develop attitudes of resentment and suspicion of all authority.⁴

4. *While good discipline cannot be said to be solely controlled by the teacher, neither can it be said that the teacher ever relinquishes her role of a mature guide and counselor.* The application of this principle will require a teacher who is sensitive to the ideal balance between pupil and teacher responsibility.

5. *In a well-disciplined classroom children understand the type of behavior that is most conducive to success in the type of learning at hand.* Obviously, taking a test, preparing an oral report, and the meeting of social studies committees call for three entirely different types of behavior. Children have to be helped to choose the appropriate way of working; this skill cannot be left to chance.

6. *Another principle that should guide the teacher's planning is that the well-adjusted child is a self-disciplined child.* He has resources of his own for solving his own behavior needs and he can accept and even seeks assistance from others in controlling individual and group behavior.

How does discipline "emerge?" Good discipline emerges from ways of working with children. How the teacher deals with individual children and how the teacher handles groups determine the psychological climate in which discipline emerges. Many factors in the school environment influence the quality of group living, the behavior of individuals within that setting, and the way in which the teacher relates herself to the task of educating children to desire and to practice effective human relations. The nature of classroom activities is also important: the subject matter may be too easy or too difficult, the activities too simple or too monotonous, or the teacher's explanations too vague or too complicated.

Policies and practices in grouping and promotion also affect the psychological climate in the classroom. Overage and retarded children may find it difficult to achieve status in the group; so they resort to withdrawal or to aggressive tactics. Children whose mental and aca-

⁴ Ilse Forest, *Child Development* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954), pp. 201-204.

demic maturity is far above the group average may find class activities unchallenging. Lack of interest and time on their hands may result in unsocial behavior.

In all its aspects, the task of securing good discipline is an educational one. The kind of discipline desired is the kind that comes from within the child and is rooted in attitudes, understandings, skills, and habits that make possible socially accepted modes of interpersonal and intergroup relations. Good discipline is the end product of an effective program for social, citizenship, and character education. Good discipline does not just happen; neither can it be achieved by some magic trick possessed by some teachers but not by others. All teachers can achieve good discipline if they will understand the psychology of children and let their living with them be guided by sound principles of child growth and development.

In viewing good discipline as the emerging result of effective social, citizenship, and character education one must remember not to expect adult standards of immature children. Discipline for each age group must be judged in the light of the maturity of the children. Some six-year-olds have no hesitancy in using another child's coat. This is not stealing; the child simply has not yet learned the adult standards for private property. Similar illustrations could be given at other age levels. Discipline, in fact all behavior, must be appraised in terms of the age and maturity of the children. Gradually, as children grow older, they will exhibit more adult modes of conduct, provided they have had good guidance along the way and opportunities to acquire the desired modes of behavior.

Good discipline does not result from what one does in the morning before school opens or at the noon intermission. It grows out of the character and quality of group living at school *throughout* each day. Good discipline, therefore, is at work every minute of the school day through any and all school activities. In the management of classroom activities, in auditorium programs, in the lunchroom, and everywhere else all day long good discipline emerges from the way in which teachers work with children. From this standpoint, the rest of the topics discussed in this chapter are really additional discussions on how to secure good discipline. Good discipline helps to improve the quality of all school activities. Poor discipline depreciates the quality.

Cooperative Teacher-Pupil Planning

The idea of cooperative teacher-pupil planning is not new, but its general application in public-school practice is fairly recent. In its simplest form it means that pupils and teachers together develop plans and purposes for their activities. In a measure children have a voice in

deciding or choosing what activities will occupy their time and engage their efforts. The teacher's role in the selection of activities is to assure herself that the activities chosen have extensive educational potentialities.

Cooperative teacher-pupil planning has gained favor and prominence in education because of its many values in the modern purposes of education. We speak of the importance of developing self-control, self-direction, critical thinking, responsibility, initiative, creativeness, and cooperativeness. All of these characteristics may be achieved by children, in part at least, if cooperative teacher-pupil planning is used effectively.

The mere fact of pupil participation in planning school activities encourages pupil interest, motivation, and a high degree of application. It is in these self-decided projects that our goals are clear, our motives genuine, and our energies applied diligently. If cooperative teacher-pupil planning is done well it places pupils in problem-solving situations; it relieves the teacher of the need for being the dictator, the disciplinarian, the assigner of tasks; it is one of the techniques for effective living and working with children; and it can be applied to almost any phase of group living at school.⁴

Cooperative teacher-pupil planning requires time. An assignment can be dictated in a minute or two, but it may take thirty minutes or more a day to allow pupils to participate in planning and to help them learn to plan effectively. Some people object to the amount of time required for such pupil participation. Whether one agrees with such criticism depends on what one considers important in children's education. If the values inherent in pupil participation in planning are genuine and of more worth than the abstractions or isolated knowledge that could be memorized in the equivalent amount of time, then the time devoted to pupil-teacher planning is well spent.

The First Few Days of School

Every teacher is excited and concerned about the opening of the school year because there are so many unknowns in the situation. Most teachers do a great deal of advance planning, but in spite of careful preparation many questions remain unanswered. How cooperative and helpful will the other teachers be? How many children will be assigned to my room? Will most of the children be familiar or will there be many pupils new to the school, and will many of last year's group have moved away during the summer?

Although much careful preparation by the teacher before the

⁴ Loretta E. Klee, "How to Do Cooperative Planning," *Social Education*, 15 (March, 1951), 121-126.

opening of school is necessary, many things cannot or ought not be done until school starts and the children have arrived and have a part in planning and preparing the school environment for their year's activities. Let us explore some of the things teachers should leave undone so that the children may share in doing them.

Getting the room ready for use is usually the teacher's first concern. Seating has to be arranged; the room has to be brightened with drapes or curtains, plants, and other decorations; library, science, and exhibit nooks must be arranged; and books must be obtained and distributed. These are but a few of the matters in which children can and should share. Cooperative teacher-pupil planning can start at the beginning of the school year and can concern itself with matters of immediate interest to all; making the environment in which the children are going to live pleasant and convenient for use.

Usually each class group starts the school year with some pupils who are new to the school. These newcomers need to get acquainted with the building. They need to learn the location of the toilet rooms, the lunchroom, the library, the auditorium, and the principal's office. Here again is an opportunity to delegate responsibility to one or more of the pupils who are already familiar with the school plant. Such pupil guides can be designated to serve as "big brother" or "big sister" to the newcomers during the first week of school. They will not only help to introduce the newcomers to the school's routines but will facilitate their assimilation into the student body.

Eager to have the school year get off to a good start, all teachers realize that a good beginning often promises a good ending; hence they plan initial activities that are sure to captivate the eager interest of the children. Teachers of primary grades often make sure that the room contains an abundant array of toys, a pet or two, and handicraft materials so that the children will immediately find interesting things to do. The activities immediately precipitated tend to dispel children's timidity, create an eager interest in going to school, and form the basis for cooperative teacher-pupil planning.

Teachers of intermediate grades have not usually been as ingenious as primary-grade teachers in filling the environment of the classroom at the opening of the school year with things that will stimulate worthwhile educational activities. Intermediate grade teachers have felt more rigidly bound by prescribed courses of study and more conventionalized teaching procedures. As purposeful, problem-solving procedures are extended in these grades, there is less and less reason why teachers of the middle grades should not surround children with materials appropriate to their interests and that will from the very first day

evoke worth-while educational activities. Such environmental settings are supplements to, not substitutes for, pupil participation in organizing the room for use as described in an earlier paragraph.

Managing Classroom Routines

In every ongoing enterprise there are numerous routines that must be conducted expeditiously; otherwise they interfere with the main business of the day. Efficient routine helps children to establish habits *of order and promptness and frees their time and attention for more important activities*. The amount of routine as well as the exact procedures to be used will depend upon the size of the class, the age of the children, and the circumstances and facilities peculiar to a given school.

Among the common classroom routines are the following: (1) how to enter and leave the room at times when the whole class is going somewhere or returning; (2) how individual children are to leave the classroom during the day to go to the toilet, the library, or some other place in the building; (3) how to handle messages coming during the day to individual children; (4) how to meet and care for visitors to the classroom; (5) how to care for wraps and lunch boxes if children bring their own lunches; (6) how to check attendance; (7) how to care for books, papers, pencils; (8) how to distribute and collect books when sets of books are used intermittently; (9) how to care for the pets; (10) how to care for the flowers; (11) how to empty wastebaskets and keep the floor free of papers; (12) how to keep chalk boards and erasers clean; (13) how to care for the exhibits; (14) how to care for the reading table or library nook; (15) how to care for the science, handicraft, and art materials and tools; and (16) how to manage daily health inspection. (Notice how these routine matters are handled in the two schedules included in Chapter 9.)

All these routines are matters in which children at all age levels can assume major responsibility. In fact, these responsibilities are an important phase of their education. The procedures to be adopted should be developed through pupil participation, another phase of school life in which there is opportunity for cooperative teacher-pupil planning.

Controlling Classroom Environment

Controlling classroom environment is in reality a phase of classroom routine. Its special importance is the chief reason for isolating it for special treatment. Classroom environment may be defined broadly

to include acoustics; the physical conditions of temperature, humidity, lighting, and ventilation; interior decoration; and the psychological climate. The present discussion is restricted, however, to the physical aspects. The physical conditions under which children work have such



"You two need to exchange seats."

an important bearing upon their energy consumption, their comfort, their physical and mental health, their behavior, and their effort and interest that no teacher can be insensitive to the importance of maintaining wholesome physical conditions in the classroom at all times.

Classroom lighting requires continuous attention. Most elementary school classrooms in the United States are located in such a way that the windows that provide the chief source of natural light face the east, southeast, south, southwest, or west. Thus during certain portions of the day the direct rays of the sun beat through the windows. Children sitting in those portions of the room hit by the direct rays of the sun are blinded by its brightness unless the shades are properly drawn. If the shades are drawn, those sitting on the far side of the room away from the windows are likely to have too little light unless the electric lights are turned on in their side of the room. As the sun changes position during the course of the day, the shades and the electric lights must be adjusted in order that all in the room may have an appropriate amount, source, and quality of light.

The way in which a child is seated in the classroom affects his welfare and work efficiency. In the first place, the seat should fit him. Its height should be such as to enable the child's feet to be placed squarely on the floor, not so high that his feet dangle or so low that his knees stick up like mountain peaks. The desk or table at which he works should have an appropriate relation to the child as he sits at his seat. The under side of the desk should be high enough to give freedom to the legs as they project under it. The top of the desk should be of a height that enables the child to write or draw easily and does not cause him to change the natural position of his shoulders. The distance at which the child sits from the desk should be great enough to keep him from feeling "squeezed in" but not so great as to force him to sit *on the edge of his seat or to lean forward at an uncomfortable and unhealthful angle.*

The other aspect of seating that merits special attention is the location of the pupils' desks or tables with reference to the chief source of light. As a rule, and particularly for extended work periods, the child should be seated so that the main source of light comes from the side and over the shoulder opposite the arm with which the child writes. Right-handed children should be seated so that the chief source of light is over the left shoulder; left-handed children should have the chief source of light over the right shoulder. Children who sit nearest the windows should face slightly away from them at an angle of about forty-five degrees rather than parallel and facing the front of the room. This partially sidewise arrangement should prevail for all children *sitting in that half of the room that is nearest the windows and that is formed by a diagonal line drawn from the edge of the window nearest the front of the room to the rear corner of the room, that is, the corner opposite the side on which the windows are located.*

Temperature, ventilation, and humidity also require careful control. Few factors are more destructive of effective work and more conducive to discomfort and infractions of good conduct than uncomfortable atmospheric conditions. If the school building is equipped with automatic heating and ventilating systems *the teacher must be on the alert to make sure that the system is operating properly and to make immediate reports if it is not.* If window ventilation is used, there is the problem of making sure that ventilation is adequate at all times without casting cold drafts on anyone. Classroom heating units, whether automatic or hand controlled, must be constantly watched to ensure a reasonably uniform temperature at sixty-eight to seventy-two degrees Fahrenheit. Each classroom should have a thermometer hung *at the shoulder level of the children when they are seated. Ther-*

thermometers hung at or above the eye level of the teacher standing upright give misleading information about room temperature at the children's level.

The various phases of controlling classroom environment are activities for which children can assume the larger share of responsibility. At all age levels children can participate in varying degrees in developing plans for taking care of these routines. The use of rotating committees has proved successful in hundreds of classrooms. Lighting, heating, and ventilation are realistic, tangible problems of group living at school that should be made the centers of instructional activities. These problems represent realistic units in science and could well be handled as a part of the broad field of science and health.

Meeting All-School Problems

There are numerous all-school problems that must be handled in every school. In contrast to classroom routines, which involve only the pupils in a given class, all-school problems involve children from several or all class groups. Handling traffic in the halls, use of the playground, use of the toilet rooms, and street traffic near the school are but a few illustrations. In each instance the problem arises out of and is one phase of group life at school. Realistic problems of human relations, they should be utilized as educational opportunities and viewed as a part of the broad field of social, citizenship, and character education. They also represent occasions in which children should have an active role in discussing the issues, suggesting procedures for meeting them, and arriving at decisions. It is another area in which cooperative teacher-pupil planning should prevail.

Since all-school problems involve several or all class groups in the school, the methods for dealing with them must be different from and more complicated than those for handling classroom routines. Some schools have a central student council to which each room elects one or more delegates and to which most of the all-school problems are referred. This procedure is likely to be ineffective unless there is definite machinery for a thorough discussion of each issue in each classroom before a plan of action is agreed upon by the central student council. An effective student council should be supplemented by a citizenship club or by some form of room organization in each classroom.

Some schools supplement with hall monitors or playground monitors the procedures developed by home-room clubs and the student council. This plan has merit provided the monitors are designated as special helpers rather than as policemen or secret-service agents

who are to report any misdemeanors. A system of spies or policemen has no place in an elementary school. The spirit, attitude, and conduct of children should be such that a police system is unnecessary. If all-school routines are in a bad state of affairs, they cannot be solved by policemen; a fundamental revision of the whole program of working with children is needed.

Many schools located on streets that carry heavy traffic have had excellent success with student safety patrols. Children enjoy taking responsibility and profit from it. A well-instructed and well-supervised safety patrol can be an effective educational activity, both for the *members of the patrol and for the other children who are learning safe modes of conduct on the streets.*

All schools have hazards of some kind. Even though a building may be completely fireproof, children should learn proper modes of evacuating a building if a fire is discovered. Such methods should be developed and the children given practice in using them. Children can and should help in devising the fire drills to be followed in a given school. Fire prevention and safety for all in the event of a fire are excellent, live problems for children and teachers and could well be used as educational activities in the broad field of science and health or the field of social and citizenship education. Safety in the use of stairways, the use of electrical equipment in the school, and the use of playground equipment can be handled in the same way.

Children should also be given opportunity to assist in managing some of the administrative jobs in the school. Children in the intermediate grades can take turns helping in the school library, in the lunchroom, and in the principal's office by answering the phone and delivering messages. Such experience is valuable training for children and helps them acquire a feeling of "our school." In using pupil helpers, however, the teacher should be sure to rotate assignments frequently and to guard against encroaching too heavily upon the time of any one child. A thirty-minute period a day for a six-week period spent as a student helper should not be an objectionable amount during a full school year. The educational values accruing to the child more than outweigh what he would gain in the same amount of time spent with the regular class group.

Meeting Individual Needs

That children of the same chronological age or in the same grade differ widely in almost every measurable human trait is so well known a fact that demonstration of it need not be presented here. The existence of these differences in any class means that the children differ

widely in their developmental needs. As was said earlier, the unfolding of each child's growth pattern brings about individualized developmental needs and stresses, many of which cannot be met satisfactorily by group procedures. There thus arises the need for the teacher to be constantly alert to individual needs and differences among the children and to meet these needs in the best way that circumstances will permit.

Adapting activities, opportunities, and instructional assistance to individual differences does much to improve the quality of children's education and the psychological climate of the classroom and the school. Happiness, a wholesome attitude, and good mental health usually prevail if a person has a task that is challenging but not difficult enough to preclude success, a plan for attacking it, and freedom to carry it out. Being able to do fairly well what he undertakes enables the child to build and to maintain self-respect, to elicit the approval of others, to achieve status with his peers, and to be motivated to undertake other tasks that will meet the approval of the group. Meeting individual needs of children is thus one of the extremely important aspects of teaching.

There are four general areas in which children are likely to have sufficiently individualized needs to require special attention by the teacher. Some children have lowered vitality and require more frequent and longer rest periods and less strenuous play than others. Those with poor vision need to be seated where the light is always good but not too bright, where they are close to the chalk board, bulletin board, exhibits, or other places in which displayed materials should be seen clearly for effective participation in group activities. Children who do not hear well should be seated where they are not at a disadvantage because of this handicap. Some children are retarded in physical growth and development or have physical handicaps of various sorts. These children should be encouraged to engage in specialized activities that have unique value in helping their various needs. Their roles in group play should be selected so that each child can participate happily without causing chagrin to himself or being a detriment to the enjoyment of the group. In most cases the various physical limitations of individuals should be explained to the group so that sympathetic understanding but not pity may prevail. Usually other children readily comprehend and are eager to help the individual in a variety of ways. Critical attitudes and sarcastic remarks by other children are to be avoided, for they are likely to produce a feeling of antagonism, resentment, or inferiority in the handicapped child. Attitudes of understanding and helpfulness, on the other hand, make for pleasant and happy living for all members of the school.

Some children have exceptional social needs. A child may be very quiet, reticent, or unresponsive because he comes from an economically inadequate home, and unkind and thoughtless neighbors and other children have flattered their own egos by impressing this fact repeatedly upon the child and his family. Other children in the class may be boisterous and overaggressive for the same or for other underlying causes. *Each variety of social immaturity must be diagnosed so that appropriate steps may be taken to help the child who displays it.* There are limitations in social development. Sometimes a private conference with the child, discovering a special talent and permitting the child to display it, asking the child to assist the teacher in a variety of ways, or arranging for the child to be chairman of a committee or a discussion does unbelievable wonders in changing his behavior and in helping him to achieve status in the group.

Special emotional needs are frequently associated with social needs. The child who is afraid to assert himself or to volunteer may lack confidence in himself and therefore needs encouragement and a variety of opportunities through which he may develop. The child who cries frequently, has outbursts of temper or moody spells, or refuses to play unless he can always have his own way represents a mediocre level of emotional maturity and is in need of sympathetic guidance.

The fourth area of individualized need is the academic field. The major concern here is to make sure that academic tasks are within reach of the mental maturity and capacity of the individual. Large classes and group methods of teaching, involving prescribed courses of study, uniform texts for all, and uniform standards, have been responsible for much faulty teaching, faulty learning, and pupil frustration. A child with a third-grade level of maturity in arithmetic cannot do much with a fifth-grade arithmetic book; neither can a child with third-grade reading ability get much out of a sixth-grade history text. Earlier in this volume it was said that each teacher must accept each child as he is and help him carry forward from that point. This general principle is particularly applicable in the academic fields. Each classroom should be supplied with instructional materials (textbooks, library books, and pamphlets) whose range of difficulty spreads over at least three and preferably five grades. Such a spread of difficulty of materials enables the teacher to provide each child with tasks that he *can do* and books that he *can read*. Individualization of tasks and instructional materials must be accompanied by individualized standards so that each child's progress may be compared with his own former status rather than with group averages or mythical grade requirements.

A second concern in the academic field consists of specific obsta-

cles to progress in the subject areas. Sometimes this area is known as diagnosis and remediation in the tool subjects. All children do not learn to read well by the same methods. Some need a great deal of help with word recognition, pronunciation, and phonics; others need very little specific instruction on these matters, and to require them to engage in the same exercises as the others simply retards them and may even create poor reading habits. Idiosyncrasies in children's methods of learning need to be discovered and instruction adjusted accordingly. These individual differences in learning exist in spelling, handwriting, and arithmetic as well as in reading.

Nearly every child, somewhere in his education, learns something that is wrong, fails to get correctly a specific point in procedure, or pursues a cumbersome method in certain academic tasks. It is not uncommon for children to forget to add the "carry number" in column addition, or to fail to remember to reduce by one the digit from which something was borrowed in subtraction, or to get mixed up in placing the decimal point in multiplication. The net result is the same—wrong answers in arithmetic. The child who makes one or more of these mistakes is not necessarily dull; he is simply encountering a special obstacle to his progress. Teachers should be constantly on the alert to discover such obstacles and to help children overcome them. The methods of diagnosis range all the way from informal observation of the child at work to careful analysis of written work or the administration of diagnostic tests. Unavailability of diagnostic tests or lack of funds to purchase published tests need deter no teacher from continuous and successful effort in helping children with their difficulties. Informally observing the child at work, questioning him about his procedure, having him think out loud as he works are very useful diagnostic devices. If paper and pencil tests are desired, the teacher can usually make her own in the majority of subject fields. Once his obstacles to learning have been discovered, it is usually not difficult to explain the nature of the error to the child, to show him the proper way, and to provide him with a little practice to establish the corrected procedure firmly.

The data in Chart 4, "Meeting Individual Needs," show some of the results when one teacher analyzed and attempted to meet some of the needs of children.

Individual differences in human beings are a blessing to society. The existence of differences in children does make the teacher's task more complicated, but teaching is a complicated task. Teachers with insight and understanding recognize and accept the facts about differences in children and make honest and extensive efforts to meet those differences in living and working with children.

CHART No. 4

Meeting Individual Needs

<i>Pupil</i>	<i>Needs</i>	<i>Factors Contributing to Meeting Needs</i>	<i>Results</i>
Anna	To learn value of order. To accept responsibility to group.	Elected to student council. Directed class play. Given extra assignments. Encouraged to use creative ability. Worked on class paper. Parent-teacher conference.	Became aware of ability to influence others. Became interested in art and craft work. Wrote stories and poems. Gave reports on special interests. Little improvement in orderliness and neatness.
Jim	To understand his mother. To use imagination constructively.	Class discussion of family problems in general. Writing original stories.	Accepted situation he could not change. Recognized his weakness of telling tall tales.
Clara	To gain self-confidence. To succeed in some phase of work.	Parent-teacher conference. Complimented on neatness and health habits. Given opportunities to care for library books, tables, etc. Given much individual help.	Gained status in the class because of neatness and ability to get along with others.

Source: Data supplied by Mrs. Opal Hollis, Goldspring, TEXAS.

Independent Work Periods

In practically every classroom, children differ enough in abilities and readiness for various kinds of activities so that the class should be divided into two, three, or even as many as four subgroups for selected phases of schoolwork. It is common practice for teachers in the first grade to organize three or more subgroups for instruction in beginning reading, the number of groups needed and the number of children in each group depending upon the children's readiness for reading. (Refer

to Chapter 1 for examples of grouping.) Since first-graders begin formal reading at widely different periods during the school year, they progress to widely different levels of reading ability by the end of that year. When these children get into the second and third grades, they will still represent widely different levels of reading achievement, so that the need for subgroups for reading instruction continues on into the second and third grades. In the intermediate grades there will also be certain members of each class who will require specialized direction in reading. Other subject fields and other school activities require similar working groups from time to time.

Out of the fact that each teacher should plan a program that permits work with individual children and with small groups arises the problem of what to do with the children who are temporarily left without direct guidance or supervision. The question could be stated another way, "What should the other children do while the teacher works with individuals or small groups?" The customary solution has been for the teacher to make assignments for the other children to do at their seats, assign the practice exercises or problems found in textbooks, or have the children fill in the blanks in workbooks. In the primary grades there was always a great demand for "busywork."

It is true that the children not working directly with the teacher must have something to do, but there is a vast contrast between just busywork designed to keep the children quiet and modern concepts of the functions of independent work periods. Modern purposes of education place a premium upon the development of initiative, self-direction, the ability to plan and to follow through without supervision, and the ability to evaluate the outcomes of one's efforts. These values are not obtainable in teacher-assigned seatwork. They can accrue only in classrooms in which there is cooperative teacher-pupil planning, in which classroom activities are made dynamic by pupil-determined purposes in problem-solving situations, and in which there exist flexible programs that encourage division of labor among pupils and the recognition of individual interests and needs.

The foregoing comments do not mean that there is no place for practice exercises, workbooks, or other types of seatwork. They do mean, however, that such seatwork, when used, is individualized according to pupil needs and is approached with self-motivation by the pupil because he sees in it specific values he is seeking. The comments also imply that the activities that occupy children's time during independent work periods must be sufficiently diversified to permit a considerable variety of choice.

Helen H. Cooke has provided the following realistic narrative of how independent work periods were used by a class of six-year-olds.

In the beginning of the year considerable guidance in selecting activities came directly from the teacher. As the children grew in ability to think through their plans, they suggested the following activities for this particular free quiet time.

PLANS WRITTEN ON BOARD

DISCUSSION WITH CHILDREN AS PLANS WERE MADE

Unfinished work

Some children were to continue on work previously begun during the regular work time.

Write stories

The unfamiliar words needed for the car story included: car, needs, oil, drive, gas, water.

A "car" story was suggested. This was stimulated by a previous reading of Lois Lenski's book, *The Little Auto*. When the teacher asked the question, "What will we need?" the children suggested unfamiliar words which were written on the blackboard by the teacher. Manuscript paper 8 x 14 with lines one inch apart and manuscript pencils are always accessible to the children.

Paint (4)*

The purposes of this activity were understood by the children as: making group poster, painting a birthday picture for Mother, experimenting with color, illustrating a story, telling an original story, enjoyment.

Play house (3)

The purpose of activities here might include the cleaning of the house and arranging the dolls and furniture for the next day.

Library

There is interest in reading simple material and in looking at the picture books.

Odd jobs

Errand in another room and returning empty milk bottles.

Number games

The children have previously written numbers from 1 to 20 on oak tag cards. There is fun in arranging these cards in proper order. When a child has finished he checks with the calendar in the room or with another child. Number games include dominoes and adding games. The ability to play them has been built up throughout the year under the teacher's guidance. Taking turns with the magnet to see which one can pick up the most nails is a favorite. Scores are kept by finding a card representing the number.

Clay (3)

The purpose behind this activity was the need for extra dishes in the playhouse and the joy a new child had in the mere manipulation of the clay.

* The figures indicate the number of children who participated in that work at one time. This limitation, the result of group discussion, was to avoid congestion.

About the middle of the year, the reading is done with individual children in individual books beginning with from six to eight children and rotating with no formal discussion or calling of groups. A child is excused from the group when his reading with the teacher is finished and another child takes his place. One hour in the morning and one hour in the afternoon are given to reading.

Accurate accounts of the children's use of free time were made. Peggy, Fred, Mary, Theresa, Michael, John, and Tom chose to write stories.

The simplest story read: "I *drive* the car." The most complete story read: "I *drive* the car. Grace is in the car. Tom is in the car. The car *needs* oil. The car *needs* gas. The car *needs* water. The car *needs* —." The blank space in the last line indicated the child needed assistance with the word "anti-freeze," which the group had not contemplated. Help was given by the teacher when the reading was finished. Words not *italicized* in both stories have been used before in writing.

Bob, Helen, Grace, and Walter worked on unfinished jobs such as painting several clay dishes, putting hair on a doll, finishing a valentine, and braiding a belt.

Hendrick and Richard painted a picture on wrapping paper, calling it "The Farmer and His Animals." They worked with easel paints on the floor since the paper measured 3 x 6 feet. Next they went to the playhouse where they rewired the battery to a bell. This was the outgrowth of a previous demonstration where only a few children participated in the actual experience. By doing it again by themselves the process became more clear and they developed a growing feeling of confidence in attacking new problems.

Norman and Gary painted with easel paints, too. Gary wanted to make a birthday picture for his mother while Norman enjoyed the results of experimenting with the bright colors. When their work was finished, they sat in the fire truck which had been constructed of blocks during the morning. They manipulated the steering wheel and brakes in the dramatic manner of six-year-olds and polished the fire engine thoroughly.

Alice chose four types of work. She made a valentine, writing on it, "To Mother from Alice." She went to the house, where she remade the doll's bed. Next she joined the boys in the fire truck. At the end of the hour she was reading in the library corner.

Marie and Nancy were in the library. Their time was spent reading and sharing picture books. Later they played number games.

Charles, Janet, and Catherine completed unfinished work which included drawing a picture for a child who was absent, and writing a letter to her mother. They also cut paper towels in half—a class economy agreed upon—and refilled the box for class use. When space was available, they painted individual pictures with easel paint.

Frances and Virginia had an errand to another room. They also returned the empty milk bottles. The remaining time was spent at the library corner. Carol, Paula, and Joe worked with the clay. Their work included an ash tray, some beads, and two new dishes for the playhouse.

Arthur, Christopher, and Bill played with the number games when they

were available. This group disbanded later, with Arthur joining a group in the house and Christopher and Bill entering into more dramatic play with the fire engine.

Anita wrote a letter to a child who had moved away. It read like this: "Dear Robert, We miss you. How is your trailer? Anita." She needed help with the word "trailer."

When all the children had finished reading with the teacher, ten minutes were given for the evaluation of how they had spent their free time. Some reports were, "I was very busy." "I had three jobs." "When I finished my job I helped Christopher." One admitted, "I wasted some time. I didn't plan my work so well." Another said, "I have some better ideas for my work tomorrow."¹

Interesting Narratives

Ruth Cunningham has provided many interesting narratives about teachers, pupils, and teaching. These narratives have been published in *Educational Leadership* under the general heading "The Importance of People." Two of these narratives are quoted below.

EVERYONE NEEDS TO BELONG

"Many valuable insights may be gained by watching children during periods of free play." That's what the book had said. She could see the words quite clearly, on the bottom of a left-hand page. She remembered making a special mental note of it, and planning, as she sat in her dormitory room at college, that she would always, always, sun, snow or mud, go to the playground with her children and observe them carefully. The chill in the air this morning made it a bit uncomfortable to be standing outdoors, but she wasn't going to let a shiver or two deter her from gaining "valuable insights." She set her teeth and observed the more intently.

Joan Arthur was worried about her group. They didn't seem to have that "cohesion" they had talked about in her courses at college. And, at the outset, she had decided she was going to start her first year of teaching by developing the best, the most cohesive group of any teacher in the land.

For a month, now, Joan had worked hard to develop good group feeling. She had helped the youngsters learn to plan together—with considerable success, she felt. Why only yesterday when Susan had suggested, "Let's vote on it, and the majority wins," Polly had said, "Wait a minute. We ought to talk it over first. Maybe we can find something we can all

¹ Quoted by permission from "Children with Kindergarten Experience" by Helen H. Cooke in *Independent Work Periods*, Bulletin of the Association for Childhood Education, 1200 Fifteenth Street, N.W., Washington 5, D. C., 1941. Pp. 8-10 *Children Can Work Independently*, a 1953 bulletin of the Association for Childhood Education, contains additional descriptive accounts of actual experiences in working independently.

agree on." Joan had almost purred because she was so pleased at this sign of progress.

She had made sociograms, studied intragroup organization, and discovered the isolates. Of course she would have to do something about the isolates. "Every child has a need to 'belong.'" She wouldn't ever forget that, for they'd discussed it at length in class. She hadn't overcome the feeling yet that the word "belongingness" used by Professor Wood was a strange coinage, but the idea it connoted was a good one, she was sure. Yes sir! Every child in her room was going to belong, even if she had to work her heart out to make it so.

She hadn't been able as yet to do something about each isolate, but she was pretty sure she knew the reason for each, and that was a good start. Jack Benton, for example, just couldn't do the things the others did. He couldn't seem to fit into the ball games or the "horsing around" with the other boys. It was understandable, of course, since he'd been ill and out of school for a year or so. Joan had made a mental note to try to teach him a few tricks about throwing and catching balls. She wasn't so sure of herself on the football skills, though. Maybe, she considered, she could get Billy to give Jack some coaching.

Then there was Sally Lou, a sweet little thing. She was always wanting to help the teacher. She'd offer to arrange the flowers, or to erase the blackboards, or to stay in at recess to clean the art cupboard.

"I'd have thought Sally Lou was perfectly adjusted if I hadn't had Ed. Psych. 112," Joan decided. "Now, of course, I know she is clinging to an adult for recognition because she hasn't made a satisfactory peer adjustment."

Joan smiled, pleased with herself that she knew so much. But the smile faded as she thought about some other problems.

For the last week or two, there had been little bursts of whispering in small groups, and sidelong glances, mostly in the direction of the teacher. As Joan approached such a group, there would be a hushed silence, or someone would begin to talk loud and fast in a way that made her sure the conversation had shifted. Funny, too, that Nancy, Tom, and Jack seemed to be the leaders in this subversive activity, sometimes talking among themselves, and sometimes joining other groups to initiate the undercover work. All this, Joan felt, was not good for "cohesion."

Moreover, the way things worked wasn't what she had learned to expect in Ed. Psych. 112. The sociogram showed that both Nancy and Tom were leaders, so maybe that explained the way they could stir things up. But Nancy and Tom seemed to be in on this business together, and according to all the authorities, boys and girls at that age are not supposed to cooperate. Unless, Joan remembered with a frightened gasp, they were precociously mature. A quick glimpse of Nancy's flying pigtails as she raced across the playground in a swift game of tag was reassuring. Joan couldn't see Tom, but she was reasonably certain he was somewhere on the bottom in that football-playing pile of boys. That, according to the book, was "normal" for a twelve-year-old.

But on the sociogram Jack had showed up as an isolate, and shouldn't have been a leader, or have even associated with leaders like Nancy and Tom. Yet in this whispering campaign he was acting just as though he were a leader in spite of what the sociogram had indicated. There was something definitely queer about the whole affair.

When it was time to go in from the playground, Joan wasn't sure whether to be glad or sorry—glad to get thawed out after her chilly vigil—or sorry because she'd have to live through more sly, subversive whispering.

Just before the afternoon recess, the whispering and the side-glancing became even more acute. It was Jack who detached himself from one of the groups and approached Joan.

"Miss Arthur," he said, "we wanta all play kickball together this afternoon, the boys and girls and everybody. And we want you to play, too." The last few words came out in a breathless rush. Glancing around the room, Joan saw that every eye was on her, that everyone seemed to be holding his breath for her reply.

"Why, yes," she said slowly. "That might be a good idea."

The feeling of gratified relief that swept the room was so intense as to be almost tangible. The looks of deep concern melted into broad grins.

In the kickball game, the ball came in Joan's direction so often that she was kept busy most of the time. In one brief moment of inactivity she had a twinge of conscience.

"I'm not observing the way I should," she thought. "I really ought to be watching the isolates. But, gee, these are swell kids, and this is really fun. Here comes that ball again."

Joan, as flushed and breathless as any of the youngsters, was called from the room just as the group came in from recess. No sooner had the door closed behind her, than conversation began to pop in the room.

"Gee kids," said Jack. "It really worked, didn't it?"

"Sure," agreed Martha. "She laughed right out and seemed to have fun."

"And," chimed in Sally Lou, "she never guessed how hard we worked to get the idea over."

"Nope." Tom's face was very serious as he spoke. "It sure took an awful lot of planning, but it was worth it. Now she really belongs."²

AFRAID—OF WHAT?

"I'm just plain scared," Mary Jane acknowledged to herself. "The very thought of doing my practice teaching before a group of thirty-five kids gives me shivers down my spine."

As she foresaw the situation, it was something straight out of a Salvador Dali painting, with seventy hostile, staring eyes and a limp watch that would allow time to pass only at a slimy crawl.

"Aunt Alice!" she suddenly said to herself, "Why haven't I thought of her before? She'll know what to tell me to do. After all, she's been teaching

² *Educational Leadership*, 4 (October, 1946), 58-60. Reprinted by permission.

"Do you see what I mean, Mary Jane? That's the sort of thing teachers ought to fear.

"Then there was Bill. He learned to be ashamed of his body. That wasn't all my fault, of course. His family and a lot of things in our society did their part, but I helped. We made him feel that having a body and letting it function normally and having a normal curiosity about it was 'dirty.' We gave him feelings of guilt that he's never outgrown. Even a little understanding a long time ago might have made it possible for him to be a happy husband and a proud father. We cheated him by making him feel ashamed.

"And Mary, too. We helped to make her ashamed of being a girl, of becoming a woman. We told her, 'nice little girls don't do those things,' but she'd done them, and kept on wanting to do them, so she began to feel guilty about being a 'tom-boy.' She learned to be ashamed of herself and her sex.

"It was different with Sally, yet the same in a way. We taught her to be ashamed of being a woman by saying 'big girls don't do those things,' so to avoid feeling guilty, she never grew up. As a grown woman today, she's as lacking in responsibility as a child. She depends on her husband as though he were a father and treats her children as playthings.

"We didn't help when Johnny began to be ashamed of his clothes and of not having lunch money, or money for model planes and candy bars. We didn't help him see that lack of money is not a shameful thing, or, more important, we didn't help him understand that he was not a shameful person because he lacked money. He left school to go to work as soon as the law would allow. I'm sure that further education would have helped him make a greater contribution to society.

"Milly learned in adolescence to be ashamed of herself because she was a wallflower and none of the boys asked her for dates. Rachel learned to be ashamed because of her family and her religion. John learned to be ashamed because of the color of his skin. Peter learned to be ashamed because of his speech impediment. And we didn't help. We were too busy being afraid of youngsters, or of college entrance boards, or something else so much less important than the lives of boys and girls.

"So you see, Mary Jane, I'm afraid of being afraid of the wrong things. I'm afraid of not being enough afraid when important things are at stake. I'm afraid of such things as the wrong kind of shame, or misplaced feelings of guilt, or blind prejudice. I'm afraid of not giving help when help is needed. I hope you'll understand."

"Thank you very much. You didn't tell me what I thought you would. I thought you might give me some tricks of 'discipline' so the kids would be sure to behave. I thought that was what I needed, but it wasn't. You are a fine teacher, Aunt Alice. Now I'm not afraid of children, I'm afraid for them, and I hope I'll always be afraid!"

* *Educational Leadership*, 4 (December, 1946), 200-202. Reprinted by permission.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter the authors have presented a philosophy of teaching based upon psychological foundations that have been demonstrated as sound and effective in helping children to acquire the kind of education essential for successful participation in a democratic society, that is, the kind of education represented by the purposes of education in American democracy. This philosophy of teaching constitutes the teacher's psychological orientation to her job and is contained in the statement that teaching means living and working with children and guiding their growth and development. This philosophy of teaching has been made definite by describing its application to eight major areas in which teachers work with children. The methods whereby the activities in each of the eight areas are managed reflect the application of the generalizations about children's growth and development and the educative process described in the preceding chapter.

The following generalizations are to be remembered from this chapter.

1. Teaching means living and working with children and guiding their growth and development.
2. Discipline is essentially an educational affair; it is a positive, constructive force pertaining to individual development and interpersonal and intergroup relations, which emerges as pupils and teachers develop, discover, and learn mutually satisfying ways of working together.
3. Good discipline emerges as the result of effective social, citizenship, and character education.
4. Cooperative teacher-pupil planning means that pupils and teachers together participate in developing plans and purposes for their activities.
5. Cooperative teacher-pupil planning is basic to genuine problem-solving approaches to children's education.
6. Cooperative teacher-pupil planning and a major degree of pupil initiative and responsibility should prevail in organizing the classroom environment during the first few days of school, in managing classroom routines, in controlling classroom environment, in meeting all-school problems, in dealing with individual differences, and in utilizing independent work periods.
7. A good educational program is rooted in *how* teachers live and work with children.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Adams, Fay. *Educating America's Children* (2d. ed.). New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954. "The Development of Desirable Social Attitudes and Behavior Patterns," pp. 108-128.
2. Clark, Harold F., and Anne S. McKillop. *An Introduction to Education*. New York: Chartwell House, 1951. Chap. 15, "Learning to Live and Work with Others."
3. Giles, H. H. *Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941. Chap. 5, "Basic Considerations," Part III, "Problems Posed by Pioneers."
4. Slobetz, Frank. "Elementary Teachers' Reactions to School Situations," *Journal of Educational Research*, 44 (October, 1950), 81-90.
5. Wiles, Kimball. *Teaching for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Chap. 7, "How Do We Help a Group Develop Self-Control?"

Suggested Student Activities

1. Do some cooperative teacher-pupil planning in your own class. With your instructor, choose some problem in which you are vitally interested; appoint one member of the class (or the teacher) as chairman. Then, with everyone's participation, develop the goals you wish to achieve, agree upon the activities and procedures you believe will be effective in achieving your purposes, carry out your plans, and then evaluate your experiences and the result. The idea could be applied to the student activity listed below.

2. Select one or two of the major topics treated in the chapter: (a) discipline, (b) teacher-pupil planning, (c) classroom routines, (d) classroom environment, (e) all-school problems, (f) individual needs, and (g) independent work periods. After having developed a list of things to be looked for, visit an elementary school to discover the way in which that particular aspect of school life is handled and to ascertain the ways in which the pupils are given opportunities to participate and to practice initiative and self-direction.

3. From your experience or observation write an account of good and poor solutions to discipline problems and give reasons for your evaluation.



Working with Children

"Living with Children," the title of the preceding chapter, and the title of the present chapter do not represent separate entities or separate parts of the school program; they are interwoven parts of the same enterprise—living and working with children and guiding their growth and development. The topics treated in Chapter 12 consist primarily of events, circumstances, or problems in school life that arise out of the fact that many persons of varying ages, interests, and abilities are endeavoring to live profitably within and through the environment of the school, and out of the fact that these persons are engaged in purposeful enterprises that will have immediate and long-term values for them.

The contents of these two chapters are interrelated from another standpoint. Unless the kinds of matters treated in Chapter 12 are handled appropriately, so that group living at school may be on a high plane, the purposeful enterprises of the class groups cannot be carried forward in the most effective way. An up-to-date and sound philosophy of living and working with children must permeate the *entire* school program. Moreover, a sound philosophy must be supported with sound knowledge; expert skill is required to put that knowledge into practice.

In the present chapter the reader's attention is directed more specifically to the types of activities that make up the chief teaching-learning situations in an elementary school and to certain specialized phases of the teacher's task.

The Organization of Teaching-Learning Situations

Every person, teacher or layman, knows that an educational program must consist of a series of activities or events in which the

children engage. In a preceding chapter it was stated that a curriculum is made up of activities and that it is out of participation in these activities that children experience growth and development. Every school must have some sequence of chief teaching-learning situations that comprise the body of its program. The nature of this *main stream* of events is determined by the organization of the curriculum and the general method of teaching used. Although there is not an exact, direct relation between patterns of curriculum organization and methods of teaching, traditional methods of teaching tend to prevail in schools following the more traditional types of curriculum organization. The subjects-taught-in-isolation type of curriculum would be most apt to elicit the teacher-dominated "assign-study-recite-test" routine, whereas the broad fields or common-activities-of-living type of curriculum would be most likely to elicit the "unit" method.

Three basic plans of procedure. There are three general plans for organizing the *main stream of events*—the chief teaching-learning situations—in a school program. The oldest of these is the assign-study-recite-test formula, so well known that little needs to be said about it except to point out that it has fallen into disrepute because it does not embody enough of present-day knowledge and principles about children's growth and development and the educative process in modern society. This traditional method has been superseded in modern schools by two other plans: "subject-matter units" and functional or "experience units."

Definition of a unit. The idea of the unit as a basis for organizing teaching-learning situations and as a general classroom method evolved over such a long period of time that different writers have ascribed different meanings to the term. That is why the concept requires clarification. The term "unit" means oneness, wholeness, unity, integration. When applied to the current method of organizing teaching-learning situations, "unit" means an enterprise or a learning venture that has unity. Sometimes terms like "unit of work," "instructional unit," "activity unit," or "experience unit" are used to designate each of the major sequential segments of a semester's or a year's classroom program.¹ Some units are organized around important segments of a given subject, in which case they are called "subject-matter units." Other units, called "experience units," are organized around significant pupil purposes.

The idea of unit organization of teaching-learning situations has gained wide acceptance in present-day educational literature. Although public school practice lags far behind present theory and knowledge about good teaching, most teachers of today are familiar with the idea

¹ Mark M. Evans, "The Unit Method of Teaching," *National Elementary Principal*, 28 (April, 1949), 47-48.

of units and many of them are using unit organization in some form or other. The widespread acceptance of unit organization is revealed further in the more recent state and city courses of study and in recently published textbooks for elementary schools. Most courses of study now recommend units of some type, and most of the textbooks published within the past fifteen years recognize the unit principle. Units constitute the central organizing theme, the focus of attention and interest, in the pursuit of which activities of many kinds emerge. Another way of looking at the matter is to consider units as the total sum of all the activities in which children engage while dealing with a topic, an issue, or a problem.

Several authors have recently published comprehensive and lucid treatises on unit organization and method; consequently, the treatment here is restricted to the broad and general aspects of units. The reader who wishes to delve more extensively is referred to these other sources.²

Types and Characteristics of Subject-Matter Units

Subjects such as arithmetic, geography, history, science, reading, and spelling resulted from man's effort to clarify, refine, and classify his knowledge into divisions or categories. As the culture expanded, more and more subject differentiations appeared, so that at present there are several thousand separate or distinct subjects. Some of these subjects are taught in the various types of educational institutions.

The chief purpose of classifying man's knowledge into subjects was to preserve the culture, not to teach it. But it is easy to understand how the notion that education meant erudition prompted people to adopt the organized subjects as the components of an educational program. The organization and synthesis of a body of knowledge into a subject can be done only by the advanced scholar, who represents the *frontier of knowledge* in that field because he is the only one who knows the field well enough. The result is that subjects represent *logical and systematic arrangements of the bodies of knowledge* in the various fields. It also follows that the logical organization of a subject is the achievement of the scholar, not the *product of the amateur*. When subjects are used to make up a school program, we take the logical organization of the scholar and adapt it for presentation to the immature and the uninformed.

Subjects, as we find them in elementary school curriculums, are adaptations of the logical organizations of bodies of knowledge de-

² Some of the best references on this topic may be found in the bibliography at the end of the chapter and in the Selected References.

scribed above. The typical elementary school subject may be broken into subdivisions of various kinds. In arithmetic some of the larger subdivisions are the addition of whole numbers, subtraction of fractions, and division of decimals. In reading, there are the various reading skills; in spelling, groups of words; and in the social studies, topics, themes, and principles.

These subdivisions of subjects are usually taken as the focuses or centers of interest in subject-matter units. Burton defined the subject-matter unit as

a selection of subject-matter materials, and of educative experience centering upon subject-matter materials, which are arranged around a central core found within the subject matter itself. The core may be a generalization, a topic, or a theme. The unit is to be studied by pupils for the purpose of achieving learning outcomes derivable from experiences with subject matter.³

Most authors identify four types of subject-matter units. *Topical units* are usually broad in scope. Such unit titles as "Sanitation" and "The Colonization of America" are typical. The *theme or generalization unit* is narrower in scope and is usually built around some major understanding that children are supposed to comprehend. "Industrial Civilizations Grow up in Temperate Climates" is a unit title illustrative of the generalization type. The *survey unit* is usually even broader than the topical unit; sometimes a single unit occupies a whole semester or year. "How Civilized Man Lives" and "The Coming of Science" are illustrative of survey units. They are not used extensively in elementary schools. *Problem units* are of two types: (a) those in which the problems are inherent in the subject matter as determined by adults, and (b) those in which the problems are developed from the interests of pupils who are studying the subjects. "How the Old World Came to Find the New" and "Why Did the European Nations Colonize North America?" are typical titles of problem units. The titles of problem units are usually phrased as questions.

Hopkins provided ten characteristics of subject-matter units. For the sake of brevity, only the key sentences from each of his descriptive paragraphs are quoted here.

1. The unit is prepared in advance of teaching it, or in advance of learning the subject matter by pupils.
2. The subject matter of a subject unit is always prepared in retrospect.

³From William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities* (2d ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952), p. 390. Reprinted by permission.

3. The subject matter selected is usually organized from the simple to the complex.
4. Subject matter units are taught in a relatively short time.
5. Subject matter units are usually centered in the past.
6. Adults who make subject matter units usually rely upon books as the resource for teaching and learning.
7. The teacher controls the process, which means the purpose, materials, methods, sequence, and final result.
8. The teacher knows the ends to be achieved before he begins to teach.
9. The subject matter unit usually closes with a backward look.
10. The subject matter unit is based upon the additive conception of learning.⁴

Characteristics of Experience Units

Burton has provided an excellent definition of an experience unit:

*An experience unit is a series of educative experiences organized around a pupil purpose, problem or need, utilizing socially useful subject matter and materials, and resulting in the achievement of the purpose (solution of the problem or satisfaction of need) and in the achievement of learning outcomes inherent in the process.*⁵

The full meaning of this definition can be realized only as its various parts are given supplementary consideration. The phrase "organized around a pupil purpose" underscores the chief distinction between subject-matter and experience units. In subject-matter units practically all of the decisions regarding what is to be done or what is to be studied and how the class is to proceed are made in advance by the teacher; the pupils are instructed in what they are to do, cajoled into wanting to do what the teacher wishes, or allowed to make a few suggestions on procedure. The amount of pupil participation in choosing the unit, in planning the procedures, and in evaluating the outcomes is usually very limited or pupils' interest in their participative role is simulated rather than genuine. In brief, pupil dynamics are usually induced and not self-generated.

In the experience unit, however, pupil interest and dynamics arise out of the fact that the enterprise is something the pupils themselves *really* want to do. The children are more likely to persuade the teacher that a certain unit should be undertaken than the teacher to persuade (motivate) the pupils to participate in a given unit. This basic differ-

⁴ L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process*. Reprinted by special permission of D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, Mass., 1941, pp. 245-249.

⁵ William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning* (2d ed., New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952), pp. 390-391. Reprinted by permission.

ence between subject-matter and experience units becomes clearer as one compares the titles and the nature of experience units with the titles of subject-matter units cited in earlier paragraphs.

The most genuine types of experience units center upon things the children want to do because they are vital to them. In one situation the children lacked an appropriate place to play. Nearby was a neglected city park; so the children undertook the task of improving the park for a playground.⁶ The title of such a unit might be "Preparing a Playground for Ourselves." In another situation the children were concerned with erosion, drainage, and sanitation in their rural village.⁷ The unit title in this case could have been "Draining Our Playground" or "Stopping the Erosion" or "Eradicating Dangerous Germs from Our Community." An eighth-grade group set about to find out "How healthful is Petersburg?" and "How can we help to make it more healthful?" Working with teachers and patrons the children saw the health conditions in Petersburg improve.⁸ There are many illustrations of classes that have planned parties for another class or for their mothers. In the latter case, the title of the unit could be "Entertaining Our Mothers."

Although it is important that the teacher make maximum use of cooperative planning in helping learners to identify their problems, she must retain her leadership responsibilities. Children's suggestions are not always followed exactly as given, neither are the purposes, problems, and solutions proposed the only ones pursued. The teacher, as a guide, studies the problems faced and, by questioning and suggesting, leads the learners to realize greater possibilities in the situation than would have been likely otherwise.⁹

Experience units illustrate clearly certain statements made in earlier chapters. One of them is that in the elementary school a part of children's education is carried forward by an indirect route; the attention of the children is focused upon child purposes, whereas the teacher's eye is focused upon the general purposes of education. Teacher goals and pupil purposes are not identical but related. The teacher has the responsibility of helping children to select activities that have high potential for achieving the purposes of education while at the same time helping them to achieve their goals in each of the various units.

⁶ Henry J. Otto and others, *Community Workshops for Teachers* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1942), pp. 143-153.

⁷ L. S. Tireman and Mary Watson, *La Comunidad* (Albuquerque, N. M.: University of New Mexico Press, 1943), pp. 39-44.

⁸ Effie G. Bathurst, *Petersburg Builds a Health Program*, Bulletin No. 9 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1949).

⁹ Florence B. Stratmeyer, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), pp. 304-305.

There need not and should not be any conflict between the teacher's motives and the pupils' motives even though they are expressed differently and on paper may appear to be unrelated. The close relation between the general purposes of education and how children spend their time in school is there even though the children may not be conscious of it.

For a list of the major characteristics of experience units we turn once more to the book by Hopkins. Again only the key sentences are quoted from his descriptive paragraphs.

1. An experience unit begins with a felt need of an individual or group of individuals.
2. The viewpoint in the experience unit is that of a group of individuals *facing a situation*, not looking back upon a situation that has already been lived through.
3. In an experience unit the stuff of experience is selected and organized in the process of living in the experience or as the pupils and teacher live through the experience together.
4. An experience unit cuts across subject lines.
5. An experience unit is characterized by a great variety of types of activities of learners.
6. An experience unit is centered in the present, since it always begins with a present need of individuals.
7. In an experience unit there are no fixed learnings which are required of everyone.
8. In the experience unit there is no fixed-in-advance, standardized method of measurement or evaluation.
9. *The experience unit reveals new needs to be met and new interests to be explored.*
10. The experience unit is organized around the developing purposes of pupils.
11. An experience unit is always written *after* the experience.
12. An experience unit usually closes with a *forward* rather than a *backward* look.
13. The experience unit is based upon the integrative conception of learning.¹⁰

Planning Units

Although unit organization of teaching-learning situations has become fairly common in the elementary schools of this country, there is still much confusion and uncertainty about certain issues. The first question asked by curriculum experts is "Will unit organization result in a hit-and-miss or spotted program in which many segments of a sys-

¹⁰L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process*, pp. 261-269. Reprinted by special permission of D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, Mass.

tematic sequence will be omitted?" The answer is that unit organization can provide as adequate a scope and sequence as any other plan of organization. Unit organization calls for extensive advance planning and does not imply the absence of planning or sporadic planning. This is true even if experience units are used. The chief difference introduced by unit organization is the frank recognition of a fact commonly overlooked in the assign-study-recite-test method: there are wide differences in what individual pupils obtain from a given activity or series of activities. In the traditional procedure it was assumed that if the teacher covered the textbook or the course of study all members of the class had learned it. The error in this assumption has been demonstrated so often that it is unnecessary to rehearse the details again. Traditional procedure does not guarantee that all children learn the materials in the logical order in which they are presented by the methods outlined by textbook or teacher. Unit method does not assure learning, either, but it does recognize the fact that the sequence, rate, and timing of learning by individual pupils vary a great deal. Traditional method as well as unit method requires extensive provision for individual differences.

The second question commonly asked is "Will the children learn as much under unit organization, especially if experience units are used?" or "Will the children learn the three R's as well?" The answer to both forms of the question is yes. The many experiments that have been conducted on this problem show clearly that children not only learn as much—and learn the three R's as well—under unit organization as under the traditional procedure, but that unit organization provides greater returns of other values also deemed important in modern education.¹¹ Among these other values are self-direction, self-control, initiative, critical-mindedness, cooperation, leadership, and wholesome attitudes.

The third question frequently asked is "Does unit organization result in a planless or an unplanned curriculum?" or "Does the teacher abdicate her role as guide and director of instruction?" The answer to the first part of this question was given in part in an earlier paragraph, but some additional comments should be made. No conscientious teacher would ever consider starting the school year or entering the classroom any morning of the year without carefully laid plans and

¹¹ J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938); J. Paul Leonard and Alvin C. Eurich, *An Evaluation of Modern Education* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1942); J. Cayce Morrison (ed.), *The Activity Program: Report of a Survey of the Curriculum Experiment with the Activity Program in the Elementary Schools of the City of New York* (Albany, N. Y.: State Education Department, 1941).

clear notions about the general nature of events to take place that day. The chief difference between traditional procedure and the unit method lies in the *kind* of planning done. Under the assign-study-recite-test formula, the teacher plans how to cover the next section in the textbook or course of study. Under the unit method, teachers' planning falls into three categories or levels.

At the first level of planning the teacher is concerned with the general areas or types of units, problems, or activities that will interest the pupils of a given age or grade. These general areas must have a close correlation with the kinds of problems and interests inherent in the *environment and the nature of living in the community*. They must also represent the kinds of pupil enterprises that have a high degree of value in helping children achieve the purposes of education. It is not a matter of letting children decide by themselves what they want to do. It is a question of selecting from among a wide array of children's interests those that are most useful in an educational program.

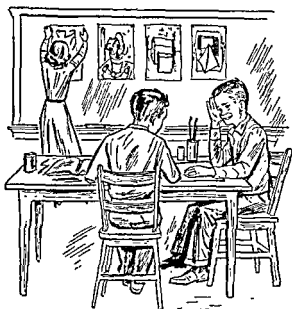
At the second level the teacher concerns herself with ways of leading children to focus their interest and enthusiasm upon interest centers that have *broad and significant educational values*. Obviously this phase of planning recurs each time one unit is concluded and another one is to be started or when a decision is made on how one unit may lead into the next. This stage of planning is extremely important because the skill with which it is done will determine the degree of difference between pupil attitude and application in teacher-assigned enterprises and in real experience units. A study of the personnel of the class, informal conversations with the children, and a setting of the *environmental stage* are helpful and frequently used techniques.

The third phase of planning draws the teacher into the actual business of cooperative teacher-pupil planning of the unit. In fact, this stage of planning persists throughout the time that a unit is in progress. It begins with the discussion in which the unit is decided upon and continues throughout every stage of the unit. Not a day or a period of the day goes by but the teacher has a role to play in guiding the development of the unit; and unless the teacher has anticipated some of the problems, questions, and situations that are going to arise and has done some advance planning, her guidance will not be as good as it could be.

Developing Units

The exact way in which units develop with a group of children depends on the children, the teacher, and the circumstances; it is impossible to write one formula that will apply to the development of all units. Perhaps no two teachers would agree on the exact details of

procedure even if both of them were teaching the same class and the same unit. There are enough similarities, however, in the ways in which units are developed so that general categories or stages can be identified. These stages are identified in the paragraphs which follow.



"I hope teacher doesn't know that next week is fire prevention week, or we'll have to have a unit on it."

General planning by the teacher. Without question the first stage in developing units consists of general planning by the teacher. The first two levels of planning described in the preceding section apply here.

Deciding and clarifying the major objective. Usually, as the initial interest in an enterprise becomes evident in children's conversation and discussion with the teacher, there are many hazy and frequently conflicting suggestions concerning the problem or what is needed or what is to be done. Teacher participation in the discussion, questions asked by the teacher, and suggestions coming from the children can usually be relied upon to emerge into a group decision on the major purpose of the unit. The decision on the objective or objectives to be accomplished should be clear-cut. If the objective is to make the scenery for a Book Week play, to improve the drainage on the playground, or to establish a store for the sale of school supplies to the whole school,

or something else as tangible, let that be the major objective of the unit. Multiple and lengthy lists of objectives are confusing to the children.

At this point the reader should recognize that the major objective in the preceding paragraph referred to the children's purpose. As a rule, the pupils' objectives are typical things they wish to do. These desires range over the whole field of children's interests. The objectives the teacher formulated in her mind relate to the purposes of education. These need not be placed on the board or in notebooks, but the children's purpose should be placed somewhere in written form so that it can be referred to repeatedly as a guide to the development of the unit.

Deciding on the things we need to know and to do. After the major pupil purpose has been chosen, the group needs to make specific what is to be done and what is to be found out. This stage of unit development requires genuine creative thinking on the part of pupils. Many suggestions will be made that will be discarded later as the various ideas emerge into a coherent list of tasks. This is the stage in planning in which the real worth is put into units. The list of things to be found out and to be done forms the framework in terms of which pupil activities will be determined.

Organizing for work. At this stage the group is ready for action, that is, action on the jobs that need to be done in order to achieve the objective. In order that the list of tasks to be done may be carried out expeditiously, there must be a plan. This plan should show what is to be done, how it is to be done, and by whom. There will be some activities in which the whole class will engage. In this category of all-group activities are reading certain materials, singing songs or listening to records or radio programs, planning sessions, excursions, and the like. Some activities, such as looking up information on special topics, interviewing certain persons, or making or bringing needed materials, will be assigned to various small committees. There will also be certain responsibilities assumed by individuals.

Organizing for work really means the formulation of a plan of procedure and the allocation of responsibilities. It is in this stage of the unit that opportunity presents itself for extensive recognition of individual differences. The plan for work should be developed so that every child has a significant role to play, every child feels that he is an important part of an ongoing enterprise, and the entire program has unity within the framework of diversity and individual and small-group special contributions.

Daily appraisal and planning. No venture of a developmental nature can be planned completely and in every detail in advance. As

each new stage of progress is attained, one must stop to appraise what has been done and to plan the details of the next step. This means that each day, or at least every two or three days, there is need for an appraisal and planning session. Sometimes the class as a whole stops for such an inventory. More often, however, this "en route" appraisal and planning is done by small groups meeting informally with the teacher.

Most teachers using the unit method have found it helpful to have a daily planning period, if for no other purpose than to determine how far each child or committee has progressed with its tasks, what kinds of problems it is encountering, and what the plans are for the day. Children are likely to forget from one day to the next and to dawdle the time away unless they have a vivid notion of what they should be doing. A daily planning period held the first thing in the morning helps to eliminate lost motion. There is no reason, however, why other planning periods cannot be held at other times during the day. In fact, some teachers prefer an appraisal and planning period at the close of the day because psychologically it is a good time to bring together the fruits of the day's work; it reminds children just before they leave for home of any jobs to be done there or materials to be brought from home, and it helps to sustain overnight attention and interest in the work going on at school. Such carry-over tends to make children eager to get back to school the next morning; and when they do arrive, they have tasks in mind to command their immediate attention. Day-end planning periods also tend to reduce the time required for the early morning planning sessions. The essential point of this discussion is that appraisal and planning are daily and ever-present aspects of a developing unit. *Scheduled planning periods are primarily for the class as a whole.*

Activities. It will be evident to the reader that a well-planned and well-developed unit elicits a large variety of pupil activities. A unit is not a single activity but an enterprise with a central purpose, which requires a number of activities for its attainment. As has been stated several times in previous chapters, children acquire their education by engaging in activities. Mossman's inventory listed 80 learning activities.¹² Diedrich's analysis showed approximately 177.¹³ The latter list was classified into eight categories: visual, oral, listening, writing, drawing, motor, mental, and emotional activities.

It is evident, of course, that not all of these activities and perhaps not all of the eight groups of activities would find a place in any one

¹² Lois C. Mossman, *The Activity Concept* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938), pp. 54-55.

¹³ Paul B. Diedrich, "A Master List of Types of Pupil Activities," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 15 (September 16, 1936).

unit. Each unit would utilize those activities essential to the attainment of one or more of its objectives.

Culminating activities. A culminating activity is the concluding part of the unit, the last episode, which brings a unit to a close. A unit should conclude in such a manner that the children will recognize and feel the successful completion of a worth-while undertaking. Some appropriate culmination gives children the zestful satisfaction of accomplishment. Moreover, the cooperative planning of a culminating activity gives children added practice in planning and an extensive opportunity for appraising their own efforts and work.

The focus of a culminating activity should be to conclude the unit rather than to make an impressive performance. The unit exists for the value it has for children's education, not for the purpose of providing a culminating activity. Too often teachers have their eyes on the latter and then direct the unit so that it will produce a spectacular culminating exhibit or program. All this suggests that the culminating activity should be planned primarily for the benefit of the members of the class rather than for the entertainment of others. Only under certain conditions or for certain units will the culminating activity result in a program for the information or entertainment of other classes or the parents. This does not mean that parents should not be invited often to view a unit in progress or to participate in its culminating activity, but the latter should be planned for the children rather than for the parents.

The culmination of a unit usually employs one or more of the following: dramatizing, presenting imaginary radio broadcasts, tableaux, puppet shows, exhibiting and explaining collections and the work of individuals and committees, demonstrating experiments, telling about the development of the unit, singing songs, playing games, and using what has been built or repaired if the purpose of the unit was the attainment of something tangible.

Evaluation. The last stage in the development of a unit is the final evaluation. This evaluation should really be in two parts. One of these, the cooperative evaluation done by teacher and pupils, is focused upon whether and how well the children's goal has been achieved and in what ways and to what extent the unit has been of value to them. The culminating activity really serves in part as a device for evaluation. The second phase of evaluation is done alone by the teacher. It is the teacher's appraisal of the ways in which and to what degree children's growth and development were enhanced by the unit in the direction of the purposes of education. The teacher is also interested in appraising her skill in guiding the unit and the relative quality and effectiveness of the various activities that found a place in it. Such appraisal by

the teacher is really a backward look to locate the weak and the strong points of the whole procedure so that weak points may be strengthened or eliminated in the next unit and the strong points improved. More will be said later about these as well as other phases of evaluation.

Directing Committee Work

An important feature of modern classroom procedure is committee work by pupils. Effective use of the unit method requires diversity of learning activities and provision for individual differences. Organizing the class into committees for certain portions of the unit activities provides both of these essentials. Distributing the work among individuals and groups will bring the class as a whole into contact with a larger variety of materials and areas of interest than will a type of classroom procedure in which all pupils engage in the identical activities. Furthermore, diversity of learning activities enables the teacher to guide each child into roles peculiarly needed to draw out or to curtail certain traits or phases of development and also to give each child an opportunity to participate in a variety of activities. Each child, in turn, gets a broader variety of experiences, an opportunity to work more intimately with a larger number of the members of the class, and chances to appear before the class with reports or activities not familiar to the others and thus give him real audience situations. Opportunities like these help to build self-confidence, a feeling of belonging, and a sense of worth. Committee activities can make valuable contributions to personality development. (Chapter 1 contains some excellent examples of committee work.)

Committees of many types are possible in elementary schools. Those associated with classroom routines and school management have been mentioned already. In connection with units of work, committees may be large or small, sometimes consisting of a single pupil and at other times as large as ten or more. Committees may be designated to gather information in the library, the community, or the museum, to make such things as houses, models, murals, or costumes, to interview persons or to arrange for their appearance in the classroom, or to gather materials and exhibits from the community.

The number and types of committees to be appointed will depend upon the nature of the unit and should be determined through cooperative teacher-pupil planning. The various tasks involved in carrying forward the unit will largely determine the number of committees needed and their assignments. Usually children will have preferences for committees or they will suggest that certain pupils should be on certain committees. In so far as possible children's choices and sugges-

tions should be heeded, but the teacher should be alert at all times to make sure that the various committee assignments over a period of weeks or months provide each child with the variety of contacts and experiences that he needs. In some cases the chairman of a committee may select his associates, whereas in other situations assignments may be made by the teacher.

In the distribution of committee memberships over a period of time certain general principles should be kept in mind. The importance of providing each child with a variety of committee activities has been mentioned. Each child, likewise, should have some opportunities to work with close friends, with children in the same as well as different social-economic groups, and with children of similar, lower, and higher mental ability or special talents. In so far as possible each child should have opportunities to serve at different times as chairman and simply as a member of a committee; in other words, he should have experience as a leader and as a follower. In general, each child's role in a committee should involve tasks he can do well or new tasks he would like to try, but tasks should not be so difficult that the child has no chance of success.

After the committees have been formed, the teacher has the further duty of guiding their activities and efforts. Most committees need help in clarifying what they are supposed to do, how they may most efficiently go about their duties, and the best ways of making their contribution to the group project. The various types of assistance given committees should be done through cooperative teacher-pupil planning, so that pupils may strengthen their own capacities for cooperative work, self-direction, and efficient work procedures. Committee activities contain many opportunities for helping children achieve purposes of education in all four major categories.

Managing Group Discussion

Discussion of topics, questions, issues, or ideas by the class as a whole or by smaller groups is an important phase of modern method in elementary schools. It is a phase of language-arts instruction, essential in socializing classroom procedure and an integral part of cooperative teacher-pupil planning and pupil participation in the evaluation of the work done.

Discussion in which pupils and teacher participate has much to contribute to the purposes of education. Most of our intercommunication is oral, and children should learn how to engage effectively in the oral use of language. Everyone should acquire the habit of thinking clearly through an idea before he speaks, of phrasing the thought

clearly and explicitly, and of saying it in a tone of voice and with an expression appropriate to the thought to be conveyed. There are also the social skills of knowing when and when not to speak, of taking one's turn in speaking, of securing recognition from the chairman before one speaks, and of saying things that will not hurt other people. The individual needs to develop confidence and poise in speaking in a group situation, acquire an informational background so that his contributions may be intelligent and constructive, have an appropriate vocabulary, and use English correctly. In a society based on self-government through group processes, people should get together to discuss common problems, to exchange ideas and information, and to come to understand each other. Skill in group discussion is thus essential in a democracy. Unfortunately schools have not fully recognized the significance of these matters and have not provided as much opportunity and training in group discussion as they should.

Managing group discussion in elementary schools presents several problems. First of all, teachers may raise the question whether elementary school pupils are mature enough to engage profitably in discussion. There are discussion periods with the teacher as leader and there are others with pupils as leaders. What kinds of skills, attitudes, and habits can and should children acquire through these activities? To what extent and in what ways can children's questions be utilized in discussion periods? What considerations should guide the teacher in her use of questions in discussion periods?

Can elementary school pupils discuss? Some people still doubt the ability of elementary school children, especially those in the primary grades, to engage profitably in group discussion. Nevertheless teachers have utilized discussion as a useful classroom technique and have conducted increasingly effective discussion periods. How one judges the educational value of discussion periods depends upon one's understanding of the values to be sought and their appropriateness in terms of the maturity of children at the various age levels in the elementary school.

Further evidence of the ability of pupils to engage profitably in group discussion has come from research studies.¹⁴ Baker used the method of direct observation in studying children's contributions in general discussion periods in grades two, four, and six.¹⁵ He found that in 24 discussion periods in each grade, the periods averaging about 34 minutes in length, 62 second-grade children made 392 contributions,

¹⁴ Summaries of such studies are given in Harold V. Baker, *Children's Contributions in Elementary School General Discussion* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), Chap. 1.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, Chaps. 5, 8.

54 fourth-grade children made 870 contributions, and 45 sixth-graders made 998 contributions. When children were permitted to talk of matters as they pleased and without specific direction or restriction, they gave little attention to "subject matter as such." Classification of the content of children's contributions showed that "personal activities," "animals," and "current happenings" constituted 77 per cent or more of the contributions in each of the grades studied. If to the percentages for the three groups already named are added the percentages of contributions devoted to "radio and movie programs," the total percentages become 95 in the second grade, 87 in the fourth grade, and 94 in the sixth grade.

Baker's study showed further that from 70 to 80 per cent of children's contributions in group discussions were devoted to "social matters." In the sixth grade, children voluntarily turned their attention to "world happenings" in 23 per cent of the contributions. The geographical "locale" was identified as the child's immediate or local environment in 84 per cent of the contributions in the second grade, 55 per cent in the fourth grade, and 27 per cent in the sixth grade. The overlapping of children's and adults' interests was identified in 6 per cent of the children's contributions in the second grade, 21 per cent in the fourth grade, and 58 per cent in the sixth grade. This overlapping occurred in the contributions classified as "current happenings." The higher the grade the greater is children's dependence upon vicarious experience for contributions in discussion.

The experience of teachers and studies such as those by Baker leave little doubt about children's ability at all grade levels to engage effectively in worth-while group discussions.

The teacher as discussion leader. Although not absolutely essential, it is highly desirable that group discussion be carried forward under the tutelage of someone designated as chairman or leader, who has the responsibility of securing distribution of participation, of keeping the discussion "on the subject," and of maintaining general orderliness in procedure. Teachers are usually skilled in the techniques of managing group meetings of this type, so that it is not difficult for them to assume the chairmanship of the group for discussion periods. Every classroom program will contain many situations in which the teacher almost automatically becomes the chairman or leader. These occasions arise in connection with planning periods for the class as a whole, with committees, and in many other aspects of unit organization.

It is perfectly appropriate for the teacher to serve as leader in various discussion situations. The danger lies in the tendency of teachers to usurp this role altogether too often. There are several reasons why

teachers tend to overdo their leadership position in group discussions. One reason is that teachers are not skilled in exercising indirect leadership as a member of the group. A second reason is that many teachers become impatient with the slower pace of pupil-led discussions and with the clumsiness displayed by pupil leaders who have not yet acquired the skill of the adult. The slow pace and less skilled performance of pupils create impatience in teachers because they are unfamiliar with the degree of skill possible in children at different grade levels in the elementary school and because of their own lack of skill in guiding the discussion through the indirect route. All these reasons are no excuses, however, for the teacher to assume leadership roles that ought to be left to pupils.



"Do you think this one should be used in our exhibit?"

Pupil leaders. Learning to be skillful in leading and directing discussion groups is an important part of children's education. Skill in this area is acquired gradually through a variety of experiences and situations. Opportunities to acquire skill in group leadership techniques should begin in the kindergarten and then widen in scope as children move up the grades. Every child of reasonable ability should have the opportunity of developing group leadership techniques to that level. This means that in every grade the school must create many opportunities in which children may serve as committee chairmen and as leaders of various types and sizes of discussion

groups. Such opportunities should be rotated frequently.

Teachers can do much to help pupils acquire confidence and skill in handling group meetings. There are many little "tricks of the trade" that children can learn at an early age, for example, arranging the seating around a table or in a circle so that everyone can see everyone else's face; calling on one individual at a time and in such sequence that everyone has his turn if he wants it; bringing the discussion back to the topic if it wanders away; and seeing to it that no one person usurps too much time with lengthy or irrelevant remarks. Techniques of leadership can be discussed with the children, and the evaluation

of a discussion period may include an appraisal of the leader's performance.

Utilizing Children's Questions

Anyone who has been around children to any extent knows that they are literally "full of questions." Asking questions and finding answers to them is a very helpful educational procedure. Altogether too many school programs are conducted in a fashion that discourages children from asking their questions. This "choking off" of children's questions and children's curiosity is one of the unpardonable sins of conventionalized school curriculums and teaching methods. The basic question is not whether but how children's questions can be utilized in a school program.

The fact that children have many unanswered questions has been verified by several research studies, one of which was made by Baker,¹⁶ who gathered children's questions in grades three, four, five, and six in public schools and in college laboratory schools. In the public schools, 514 out of 615 boys reported questions; the total number of questions given was 3,112, or an average of 5.06 questions per boy. Out of the 576 girls, 538 reported a total of 3,559 questions, or an average of 6.18 questions per girl. For boys and girls combined, the average number of questions per pupil was 5.10 in grade three, 4.82 in grade four, 4.72 in grade five, and 7.46 in grade six. Except in grade six, the children in the laboratory schools asked more questions per pupil than did the children in the public schools. The main categories and the percentage of children asking questions in each are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Percentage of 1,402 Children in Grades Three to Six, Inclusive,
Who Asked Various Types of Questions

<i>Categories</i>	<i>Percentage of Total Number of Children</i>
Animal Life	33.31
Man as a Social Being	24.23
Industrial and Commercial Products	23.97
School	22.66
Communication	22.40
War	21.82

¹⁶Emily V. Baker, *Children's Questions and Their Implications for Planning the Curriculum* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945).

Travel and Transportation	20.84
The Earth	20.18
American History and Government	18.68
Plant Life	17.11
Weather and Climate	14.50
Energy	13.91
The Human Body	13.19
Astronomy	11.10
Inventions	10.78
Distant Lands and Peoples	9.99
Problems of Personal and Social Adjustment	8.95
Recreation	8.75
Geography of the United States	6.34
Music	4.77
Reproduction	4.57
Local Community	3.66
Science--Miscellaneous	3.53
Arithmetic	2.74
Personal--to the Inquirer	2.42
Art and Artists	1.89
Definitions of Words	1.63
Unknown Persons and Places	1.63
Statements	1.44
Miscellaneous	1.24
Riddles	.52
Daydreaming	.46

Source: Emily V. Baker, *Children's Questions and Their Implications for Planning the Curriculum* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945), p. 17. Reprinted by permission.

The summary of this study shows that 9,280 questions were collected from 1,402 children in grades three to six in laboratory and public schools. Girls tended to ask more questions than boys. The subject-matter interests reflected by the questions were, in varying degree, common to both boys and girls. Children are interested in the origins and causes of natural and social phenomena. They want help in interpreting the facts and situations they observe. They want help in understanding the school situation. Nearly 50 per cent of the questions submitted fell in the areas commonly considered the social studies. Nearly 38 per cent of the questions called for scientific information and nearly 8 per cent dealt with current events.

Children's questions represent genuine desires to know. They are, therefore, clues to self-motivated, purposeful learning by pupils. Teachers should utilize these latent or dormant or hidden self-starters to genuine educational effort. In the first place, teachers can take class time occasionally to permit children to express their questions. If

discussion periods are held regularly, children will ask their questions then. Or, if children are encouraged to do so, they will bring their questions each day. Any one of these devices for getting regular or periodic inventories of children's questions will enable the teacher to gear classroom activities closer to children's genuine interests. Children's questions are thus useful in general curriculum planning. They should also be sought and utilized in specific classroom units. When the plans for units are being developed cooperatively by teacher and pupils, there is always need for being specific about what needs to be known and what needs to be done. This is the point in unit planning where children's questions may be utilized.

Children's questions also guide individual activities. If the teacher knows a child's special interests, she can direct him along those lines during independent work periods or in the selection of appropriate books from the library for home reading.

The Teacher's Use of Questions

The use of questions is a two-way affair. In addition to utilizing children's questions, the teacher can make effective use of questions of her own. Heer made the following statement regarding the use of questions in teaching.

Ever since man has tried to teach his fellowman, the question has been an important device. It was employed with supreme skill by Socrates and Plato as their students sat with them or walked with them in the gardens. It was used by Christ as he taught the multitudes or the twelve who were his disciples. In all periods in the development of our public schools, the question has been used as a means of teaching. If we were to enter a typical schoolroom of the present day, we would find that an important part of the schoolroom procedure consists of questions and answers.¹⁷

A teacher may use questions to discover more clearly what a pupil means by a statement he has made or a question he has asked, to find out whether a pupil really understands a given process or term, to determine whether a pupil knows certain information, to provide a brief review of materials previously covered, or to guide discussion and cooperative teacher-pupil planning. Although all of these various uses of questions have a legitimate place in teaching, special attention should be called to the teacher's use of questions in the latter types of situations. Most teachers are not very skillful as yet in the indirect guidance of discussion periods or in teacher-pupil planning. Appropriate ques-

¹⁷ Reprinted from *Steps to Better Teaching* by Amos L. Heer, by permission of W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., New York. Copyright, 1937, by the publishers. P. 252.

tions properly timed can do much to direct pupil effort and thought in the various types of discussions.

In situations where the techniques of good questioning are used (1) the sequence of questions is organized around a thread or core; (2) reasonably full, rounded replies are expected; however, the teacher accepts any answer or part thereof that can be used; (3) questions are within the pupils' experience and knowledge; (4) the attitude during questioning is natural, friendly, and conversational, and pupils are allowed time to think of an answer and to put it into words; (5) pupils are encouraged to ask questions, and they feel some responsibility for answering each others' questions; and (6) the teacher does not hesitate to say "I do not know" to a pupil's question.¹⁸

Although all types of questions have their legitimate uses at different times and occasions, the teacher should be careful to ensure that most of her questions are "thought questions," that is, questions that stimulate thinking on the part of children. The essential characteristic of a thought question is that it is one for which the pupil cannot find an explicit answer in his text or in supplementary references. A thought question is one that calls for reflective thinking. Monroe and Streitz listed seven types of thought questions: comparison, statement of reasons, determination of causes or effects, discussion, explanation, summary, and evaluation.¹⁹

The Role of Practice

Educators differ regarding the role of drill or practice in an educational program, some believing that practice is an unprofitable waste of time, others believing that drill, and plenty of it, is the only sure road to effective learning. This difference of viewpoints has resulted in part from a misinterpretation of the implications of researches during the past several decades on the effectiveness of practice under varying circumstances. The studies have shown that many forms of drill as conventionally administered in classrooms are ineffective and frequently lead to undesirable results. They have also shown, on the contrary, that appropriate practice engaged in at opportune times is valuable and essential. The argument is not over whether practice has a place in an educational program but over what kinds of practice should be undertaken and when. The complete elimination of drill from the classroom has never been advocated by any competent educator or psychologist anywhere at any time.

¹⁸ Burton, *op. cit.*, pp. 365-368.

¹⁹ Walter S. Monroe and Ruth Streitz, *Directing Learning in the Elementary School* (New York: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1932), pp. 292-293.

The role of practice can be seen more clearly if an illustration is taken from out-of-school life. A boy plagues his parents for months for a bicycle. He is elated when at last the bicycle is given to him. Now arises the problem of learning to ride it. No doubt the boy who has been so eager to have a bicycle has watched other children with bicycles; he has examined many bicycles; he knows the names of all the parts; he may have looked at bicycles in display windows in stores or in catalogues and advertisements; he may even have read a book on how to ride a bicycle or have been allowed to try riding a friend's bicycle; and he probably has learned the rules for riding a bicycle from the local city ordinance or police regulations.

Visualize the background of information and understanding and the high degree of motivation for learning to ride well that the boy brings to his initial efforts at riding his new bicycle. Within this setting he tries his first ride. Usually the first ride is for only a few feet; then child and bicycle land in a heap or hit a tree or the curb. There are literally hundreds of upsets, with scratched knees, lacerated hands, and torn clothes, but always the boy gets back on the bicycle and tries again. He keeps on trying, even ignoring fatigue. But little by little, as the days go by, he becomes more skillful in riding the bicycle, and he himself is aware of the progress he is making because, with great glee, he pronounces periodically the successful achievement of a new and difficult feat. At last he can ride without holding on to the handle bars or by steering with his feet on the handle bars or by sitting backward on the bicycle. The whole accomplishment has been attained by stages through persistent practice.

The example of the boy and his bicycle, so well known to all of us, embodies the essential principles that should govern practice in an educational program. In the first place, the student must have a clear understanding of what it is that he is going to practice. A broad background of information and understanding should precede practice; otherwise the practice is meaningless. Second, the pupil himself must be motivated to engage in the practice. This means that the pupil must see the need for the practice and desire to engage in it. Third, the initial phase of skill learning in which meanings are developed should contain *varied* practice; that is, the pupil should have many opportunities to apply the newly learned skill in a large variety of different functional situations and activities. Fourth, the final or refining phase of skill learning demands repetitive practice, that is, frequent repetition of the same act or acts in identical or very similar situations. Fifth, practice should be limited to skills susceptible to automatization. Sixth, progress should be apparent to the pupil. And finally, practice for

speed should be subordinated to practice for accuracy at first, and the two progressively balanced.²⁰

Measurement, Diagnosis, and Evaluation

Teachers have always tried to find out or measure the extent to which pupils have achieved the objectives for which the school was striving, discover the types of difficulties students were encountering in their various learning tasks, and appraise or evaluate the progress of the student or the effectiveness of their teaching. The ideas inherent in measurement, diagnosis, and evaluation are not new; effective ways of applying them have changed a great deal, and the teacher of today is interested in using the best and most effective tools in carrying forward these phases of teaching.

The basic elements in measurement in education are essentially the same as in other fields. Everyone is familiar with the procedure used in measuring the length of a rod. A standard measure of length, such as a foot, is applied to the rod and a record taken of the length of the rod in terms of feet. In educational measurement, standardized instruments are applied to determine the degree to which a given aspect of growth or development has occurred in a given pupil or in a class. For example, we use a scale to determine how many pounds a child weighs, a yardstick to find his height, a mental test to find his mental age, or an achievement test to find his level of accomplishment in some subject area. These educational measuring instruments are standardized and have standard units of measure similar to the pound, the foot, the inch, or the kilowatt in electricity. Aside from the devices for measuring height and weight, the more commonly known standardized instruments for educational measurement consist of the published mental and achievement tests.²¹

Standardized measuring instruments are now used extensively in public schools and have become integral and essential features of classroom teaching. Standardized tests, however, are not the only measuring instruments used by teachers. In fact, unstandardized or teacher-made tests are used to a greater extent by most teachers than are standardized

²⁰ More extended discussions on the role of practice may be found in the following sources: James L. Mursell, *Psychology for Modern Education* (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1952), Chaps. 5, 6; *The Psychology of Learning*, Forty-first Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942), Part II, Chap. 10; Burton, *op. cit.*, Chap. 18.

²¹ For a comprehensive list of published mental and achievement tests and scales of various kinds, see the latest edition of Oscar K. Buros, *Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Highland Park, N. J.: The Mental Measurements Yearbook).

tests. These teacher-made tests, sometimes called informal or unstandardized, are well known to everyone; they are the examinations that the teacher herself prepares and gives at the end of the week, at the end of a unit, at the end of a six-week period, or whenever she wishes to find out how well the children have learned certain topics or portions of content upon which they have been working. Teacher-made tests have an advantage over published tests in that they are more closely correlated with special instructional emphases in a particular class or with smaller segments of the course of study. One frequently hears the comment that standardized tests include items that a given class has not studied or that are not included in the local course of study. The chief limitation of informal tests is that they are not standardized and hence give no basis for comparing with an outside criterion the scores obtained by a given pupil or class. On the informal test the teacher has no way of knowing whether a child's score is good, poor, or average for a child of his age or maturity. Both the standardized and the teacher-made tests have useful places in classroom teaching.²²

Modern schools do not restrict the techniques of appraisal of children's growth and development or the effectiveness of the educational program to the use of standardized and informal tests. Such other tools as the anecdotal record, the interview, the questionnaire, the rating scale, the individual pupil profile, the class record, the cumulative record, and the case study are useful devices with which many teachers supplement information obtained from objective measures. Schools that concern themselves with the wholesome all-round development of children need various types of information in addition to that obtained from tests.

Educational diagnosis. Anyone working with children needs to know at least three things: (a) to what extent does a child already know or possess certain information, understanding, or skill, (b) what are the learning difficulties the child is encountering, and (c) what are the chief causes of the child's difficulties? Answers to the first of these questions are sought through the use of the several measuring devices described in preceding paragraphs. But it is not enough to know that a sixth-grade child has a reading age of nine years or that a fourth-grader reflects an emotional maturity no greater than that commonly found in kindergarten children. Measurement alone is inadequate. The teacher also wants to know the nature of the difficulties along the way

²² Excellent assistance on the preparation and administration of informal tests may be obtained from recent books on testing, such as Harry A. Greene, Albert N. Jorgensen, and J. Raymond Gerberich, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary School* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1953).

and the underlying causes. Without this information the teacher cannot guide the child's growth and development intelligently. The latter two questions outline the field of educational diagnosis.

Educational diagnosis relates to the techniques by which the teacher discovers and evaluates both strengths and weaknesses of the individual as a basis for more effective guidance. Just as the physician bases his diagnosis on a well-classified knowledge of symptoms of various physical and mental ailments and their underlying causes, so the teacher needs to understand all types of learning difficulties, their symptoms, and causes in order to make a valid diagnosis of a pupil's failure to grow in desired ways at a satisfactory rate. There is an abundance of experimental evidence to prove the value of educational diagnosis when followed by appropriate remedial measures.²³

The various techniques of measurement described in preceding paragraphs provide facts and other information essential to accurate diagnosis. Particularly helpful in this regard are the cumulative record, the individual pupil profile, the interview, and the case study. As a rule teachers will want to supplement data from these procedures with specifically designed diagnostic tests when pupils are encountering difficulties in the subject areas. For example, if a student is having difficulty in subtracting a three-digit from a four-digit number in which borrowing occurs in the unit and the hundreds digits, the teacher can design a diagnostic test that will enable her to find the exact point at which the pupil is using faulty procedure and the nature of the difficulty. Diagnosis is facilitated if the teacher can observe the pupil at work or have him think out loud while he is working the examples in the diagnostic test. It is easy to see how the interview technique would be helpful in diagnosis. Sometimes an analysis of a pupil's written work reveals adequate diagnostic information, but as a rule an analysis of written work will reveal the type of error made by the pupil but not the cause or the nature of the faulty procedure.

Measurements of many kinds and regular use of diagnostic techniques are an integral part of everyday teaching. Testing is not something that is done apart from teaching or an exercise in which supervisors engage once or twice a year. Measurement and diagnosis constitute essential features of classroom teaching and should be ever present aspects of an ongoing classroom program.

Evaluation. Evaluation means appraisal or judging the value or amount or worth-whileness of something. People are always engaging in evaluation of some sort. In everyday life a person desires a new automobile; inquiring about the price, he finds that it is very high

²³ C. C. Ross (revised by Julian C. Stanley), *Measurement in Today's Schools* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), Chap. 12, "Diagnosis."

and decides that he needs new clothes more than a new automobile. In his mind he has weighed the *relative merits or his relative need* and desire for clothes and for an automobile and has decided in favor of the clothes. He has used some kind of criterion, such as personal need, personal appearance, usefulness, or available funds, against which he has weighed the pros and cons, and then decided in favor of the clothes. Evaluation implies that there are certain criteria, certain fundamental values or considerations in the light of which the facts are reviewed and conclusions reached. Sometimes we call this an interpretation of the facts. From this standpoint evaluation and interpretation may be thought of as synonymous.

Evaluation is ever present in the work of the teacher. The various techniques of measurement and diagnosis can provide essential information, but interpretation or appraisal must be done by the teacher in the *light of value criteria geared to the purposes of education* and the maturity of children at various age levels. Tests may show that a six-year-old just starting school cannot read; learning to read is an important goal in elementary schools, but one does not become alarmed because this six-year-old has not yet learned to read. Here is a twelve-year-old whose abilities in arithmetic parallel those of a typical fourth-grader, but the child has an IQ of 80; hence one concludes that the child is doing very well in arithmetic. Evaluation means judgment or interpretation in the light of all the related facts and in terms of value criteria.

Several aspects of evaluation call for special attention when applied to procedures of measurement and diagnosis. The use of measurement and diagnostic techniques should be restricted to those phases of child growth and development for which the teacher has real need of information. Much time can be wasted by testing that yields no information particularly useful to anyone. Useful testing means that the information gathered pertains to significant aspects of child life related to the purposes of education. In other words, the data gathered should enable the teacher to do a better job of guiding the child's growth and development toward the purposes of education. In order to do this effectively the educational goals sought must be translated into specific items of pupil behavior indicative of progress toward the goals, and testing procedures must then be selected or designed so that they are appropriate to the goals sought. The test items or test situations should be valid and reliable indexes of pupil behavior and learning. Whatever is tested should be worth testing, the methods whereby it is tested should be appropriate to the age of the child tested and the goal sought, *and the evaluation of the findings should be in terms of genuine educational values sought by the school.*

At one time, not so very many years ago, many teachers had the

notion that the purpose of measurement and diagnosis was to discover how well the child was doing, whether he was applying himself adequately, or whether he needed admonishment. We have since learned that with appropriate nourishment (from the physical and the educational standpoints) children will grow and develop in accordance with their individual growth patterns. If they do not we can be sure that something is amiss with their environment or their physical well-being. The chief function of measurement and diagnosis has therefore become one of finding out how the child is growing and developing so that we may evaluate the adequacy of the environment. Evaluation does not in any sense minimize educational measurement. Evaluation is a more inclusive term than measurement. The latter is limited to the quantitative aspects of education, whereas the former includes both the quantitative and the qualitative aspects. Also evaluation involves the use that is made of information obtained by measurement as well as by other means.²⁴ Heaton phrased the present viewpoint in evaluation very succinctly when he said that teachers were "using instruments of evaluation to discover, not whether pupils had done their work, but what the work had done to the pupils."²⁵

Measurement, diagnosis, and evaluation are interrelated with each other as well as integral phases of an ongoing instructional program. Evaluation is difficult if not impossible without adequate and reasonably objective data. Measurement and diagnosis provide the data, certain types of which are gathered by the teacher at time intervals of designated length. For example, children's height and weight may be obtained and recorded every six months; intelligence tests may be given once every three years; and standardized achievement tests once each semester. Other types of data are gathered more frequently. Illustrations of these other types of data-gathering devices are teacher-made tests, diagnostic tests, and interviews with pupils and parents. Evaluation takes place continuously. It is done independently by the teacher as well as cooperatively by the teacher and individual pupils or by the teacher and groups of pupils while units and other activities are planned and evaluated.

Chapter Summary

Living and working with children are inseparable parts of the task of guiding children's growth and development in desirable directions. In a modern school program the main stream of events consists of ex-

²⁴ William B. Ragan, *Modern Elementary Curriculum* (New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1953), p. 478.

²⁵ Kenneth L. Heaton, *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940), p. 120.

perience units. Such units involve advance planning by the teacher, cooperative teacher-pupil planning, a variety of activities, and evaluation. Teachers must be skilled in directing the work of committees, in managing group discussion, in utilizing children's questions, and in their own use of questions. Measurement, diagnosis, and evaluation are everyday phases of teaching. The modern emphasis in evaluation is to determine how good a job the school is doing for the child rather than to appraise how well the child is doing the school program.

The following major ideas were developed in this chapter.

1. Living and working with children are interrelated parts of the task of *guiding children's growth and development in desirable directions.*
2. Group living at school must be on a high plane if the purposeful enterprises of class groups are to be carried forward effectively.
3. An up-to-date and sound philosophy of living and working with children must permeate the *entire* school program.
4. The character and quality of the main sequence of teaching-learning situations which make up the body of the school program are determined by the organization of the curriculum and the general method of teaching used.
5. The idea of unit organization of teaching-learning situations has gained wide acceptance in present-day educational literature.
6. "Experience units" appear to be the best method of organizing teaching-learning enterprises because they embody a more extensive application of the best knowledge of how growth, development, and learning take place.
7. Unit organization calls for extensive advance planning by the teacher and cooperative teacher-pupil planning in all stages of the development of each unit.
8. Committee work is an essential feature of modern classroom procedure.
9. Group discussion is an integral phase of modern classroom procedure.
10. Children's questions should be used extensively by the teacher in curriculum planning, in guiding the development of units, and in guiding the activities of individual children.
11. Teachers' questions can serve many useful purposes in working with children.
12. Drill or practice, when appropriately administered, has a useful and important place in a school program.
13. Measurement, diagnosis, and evaluation are integral features of good teaching.

Recommended Additional Readings

1. Adams, Fay. *Educating America's Children* (2d ed.). New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954. Chap. 5, "General Method: The Unit of Work Procedure."
2. Hanna, Lavonne A., Gladys L. Potter, and Neva Hagaman. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1955. Chap. 6, "Developing a Unit of Work."
3. Reinhardt, Emma. *American Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954. Chap. 8, "Living and Learning in the Modern Elementary School."
4. Rugg, Harold, and B. Marian Brooks. *The Teacher in School and Society*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1950. Chap. 16, "Evaluating the Work of the School."
5. Strickland, Ruth G. *How to Build a Unit*. *Bulletin* 1946, No. 5. Washington: Office of Education, 1946.
6. Thurston, Mildred. *Helping Children Live and Learn: Guide to Use of Selected Materials That Contribute to Good Learning Experiences for Children in the Elementary School*. *Bulletin* No. 89. Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1952.

Suggested Student Activities

1. Visit an elementary school to observe (a) the way in which teacher-learning situations are organized, (b) a committee of pupils at work, (c) a group discussion taking place, (d) the teacher's use of questions, and (e) the ways in which the teacher utilizes children's questions.

2. Make a list of units mentioned in Chapter 1.

3. Read an account of a unit of work. (Courses of study often contain units and sometimes units are published separately.)

4. Examine sample standardized tests and other evaluation instruments. Note the purpose of each.

5. See the film *Each Child Is Different* (17 minutes, sd. B&W; McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1954).

PART 4



**Administrative and
Personal Factors**



The Teacher's Administrative Role

The preceding chapters of this book have dealt primarily with (a) the child and how he grows and develops, (b) the directions in which home, school, church, and other community agencies endeavor to guide his growth and development, (c) the educational resources of his environment and how he utilizes them to meet his developmental needs, and (d) the role of the teacher in providing, creating, or utilizing an appropriate and rich educational environment for children of elementary school age and in guiding the children in effective uses of that environment to enhance their own growth and development in desirable directions. The reader's attention is now directed to two other aspects of the enormous task of educating our elementary school children. The present chapter surveys the teacher's administrative role while Chapter 15 deals with the teacher as a person and professional worker.

The Teacher and the State

In the United States education is a function of each of the states. The Constitution of the United States makes no reference to or provision for education. Moreover, the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution, ratified in 1791, provides that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." Although the federal government has made many contributions to education in the states and has some authority to promote and to control education

where federal grants are involved, the basic control rests with each of the states. This state authority and responsibility for education is expressed in the constitutions of the various states and in the laws passed by their legislatures. Because of the nature of the relations between the federal government and the states in educational affairs the public school teacher's basic orientation is to the system of education in vogue in the particular state in which she works. Nevertheless, she must not overlook the fact that her broad professional orientation is to the United States as a whole and to the world at large. The welfare and progress of mankind rest primarily upon the effective education of each succeeding generation of children as well as upon the continuing education of the adults. The progress, or lack of progress, of nations, the wars of the past, and the conditions all over the world at present have impressed upon people the need for universal education in every nook and corner of the world. Wars are born in the minds of men, and world peace cannot come unless men become educated and nations learn how to live with each other in understanding, tolerance, and cooperation. Each teacher, therefore, is an agent for peace and the welfare of mankind in a world society.

Intelligent self-government is possible only among well-educated people. In the United States the ideal of democratic self-government is close to the heart of every thinking citizen. This ideal must be expressed in practice in the home, the neighborhood, the local community, the state, and the nation, and in international affairs. Each person is really a citizen at each of these levels, at least to the extent that his abilities and activities enable him to operate at the different levels. The welfare of each individual is associated in one way or another with the character of self-government in his community, in his state, in his nation, and in the world at large. Each child's education, therefore, must be oriented to the role that he will play at these different levels of citizenship. In the United States, where we are committed to democratic self-government, the teacher is an agent for promoting the ideals and practices of democracy in the country as a whole. Although a teacher operates in a particular classroom that may seem far removed from the policy makers in Washington, the work that is being done in the classroom is central to the continuing success of our democratic form of government. Each student, his personality, his knowledge, his success or failure in future life is of vital concern not only to his family and teachers but also to his community, state, and nation. The fact that each individual is sacred is the key to our democratic way of life. In this sense each teacher has in his or her trust the most precious stuff of democracy.

Going now from the realm of the national and international to

that of the state, we come closer to the immediate and tangible relations of the teacher. The fact that school districts, school buildings, and teaching positions exist arises out of the authority vested in state constitutions and state legislatures to provide for education. State legislatures establish the legal framework for local school districts by passing laws that determine the structure of the state school system and provide for the operation of the schools. State laws give the local districts power to levy taxes and employ teachers; such matters as length of the school term, compulsory attendance, certification of teachers, teachers' salaries, and standards for school buildings are also determined by the legislature.¹ Local school districts are created by the state and have only such duties and authority as it grants to them. The appointment of teachers is one of the authorities delegated by the state to local school districts and their boards of education. Technically the teacher is engaged by the local board of education, but in a very real sense the teacher is an agent of the state. It is the teacher who in the local situation carries out the state program. It is important, therefore, that the teacher be thoroughly acquainted with the details of the program of education as it is outlined and carried forward in the particular state in which she works.

The Strategic Local Role of the Teacher

In the particular building or the particular classroom in which she works the teacher is one of the key figures in the community's educational program. The school is either good, mediocre, or poor, depending on the kind of teacher in the classroom and what that teacher does. Brick and mortar, books, and other instructional resources are important, but when all is said and done, the teacher is the most important part of any school program. "As is the teacher, so is the school"—the old adage still holds true.

It is the teacher who chiefly determines the character and scope of children's schooling. In the classroom and in other school activities the teacher is *the* guiding influence. Most of the administrative and curriculum policies of the school system must be implemented by the classroom teacher. The role of education in state, national, and international affairs is far-reaching, and the foundation is laid with a particular group of children in a particular school or classroom in the local community. Education in its broadest as well as its narrowest aspects must take place where the children are, and the children live and go to

¹ Gordon McCloskey, Zeno B. Katterle, and Delmar T. Oviatt, *Introduction to Teaching in American Schools* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1954), p. 288.

school in the neighborhoods of the local communities, big and small, all over the land.

Community Relations

As a rule good schools exist only in communities in which the people are aware of their presence, have an interest in them, have frequent personal contacts with the schools, are familiar with their program and policies, feel that their children are getting good schooling, and know the needs of the schools. These conditions can prevail only if the school and its teachers have many and varied contacts with the community and its adults. This relation should not be a one-way relation in which the school faculty *tells* the people what's what or in which the people dictate to the school. It should be a mutually cooperative, interacting relation in which parents and teachers manifest a frank but friendly concern for the welfare of children and the development of a school program that serves children adequately in present-day society. In such a friendly working relation teachers and administrative and supervisory officers will be able to give professional leadership to the lay groups.

A successful relation between school and community requires extensive effort by all members of the school personnel—superintendent, principals, supervisors, and teachers. Many avenues may be used in interpreting the schools to the public. Some schools make use of study groups of parents and teachers. In these groups an effort is made to understand education today, its purposes, and the means of achieving these purposes. The findings of the study are then applied to the local school system. Other schools form committees to study pertinent problems in their own school systems, each committee being composed of both parents and teachers. Findings and recommendations of each committee are presented at an open meeting as well as reported through the local newspaper.

Study groups and joint committees constitute one way of meeting the adverse criticism being leveled at our public schools today. Much of this criticism stems from a lack of understanding of what the schools are attempting and their underlying purposes. It is the responsibility of the leaders in the schools to educate the public concerning changes in the school if favorable school-community relations are to exist.

Although all members of the school personnel have a responsibility for helping in the establishment of good school-community relations, the classroom teacher is the key person, for she fills several strategic positions in community relations.

Good day-by-day classroom teaching that includes skillful and

sympathetic living and working with children is the most important element in community relations. Parents' most direct and personal contact with the school is through their own children. If their children are having a happy, interesting, profitable, and challenging time at school, parents think well of the school; conversely, parents will not think well of the school, even if the building is brand new with all modern equipment, unless their children are experiencing worth-while learnings in a wholesome environment. Unless good teaching prevails in the school, a pleasant working relation with parents is impossible. Good teaching, on the other hand, opens the way for other types of wholesome community relations. Teachers should realize that they as individuals and their teaching in particular form the keystone to school and community relations.

Teachers play other active roles in community relations: individual parent-teacher conferences at school, teachers' visits to children's homes, parents' visits to the classroom and observation of activities there, social programs given by children for their parents, programs culminating unit activities, periodic reports to parents of children's progress in school, class participation in school and community improvement projects, the utilization of adults and community agencies in the school program, and teacher participation in the P.T.A. Most of these activities have been treated in one way or another in preceding chapters; hence further detail is omitted at this point. It is essential that teachers recognize these as important expressions of school and community relations and that they should assume responsibility for making these contacts effective and constructive influences in building a wholesome relation between the school and the community.

Relations with Administrative and Supervisory Personnel

Unless she teaches in a small school in a small school district, the teacher has one or more administrative and supervisory officers with whom she shares duties and responsibilities. In a school system of five to thirty or forty teachers the superintendent of schools may carry all the administrative and supervisory responsibilities for the elementary and secondary schools; in some elementary schools there is a teacher who teaches only part time and assumes some of these duties. Hence, in a small school system the elementary school teacher has a part-time principal and the superintendent of schools as administrative and supervisory co-workers. In larger school systems each elementary school is likely to have a nonteaching principal who devotes full time to administrative and supervisory work; moreover, the superintendent's office

will be staffed with a variety of supervisory assistants, in which case each teacher has a larger number of persons with specialized training to whom she can look for assistance. The presence in the school system of one or more administrative and supervisory officers raises the question of the teacher's relation to them.

In order to orient herself appropriately in her relations with professional associates in the school system, each teacher should clarify her notions about herself and her own role as a professional worker; she should also have clear ideas about the duties and responsibilities of others and be willing to make any reasonable adjustments required of her. Yet this business of achieving and maintaining mutually satisfying and helpful relations with associates is a reciprocal affair and no supervisor who does not respect them will have the respect of his teachers.

Studies in human relations have made it quite clear that mutually satisfying relations with other people are seldom achieved or maintained unless each of the parties in the relation is a well-adjusted person with a wholesome, well-integrated personality. To achieve a well-adjusted personality is as difficult for teachers as for anyone else, but a number of qualities seem to be essential. The teacher must have confidence in herself as a person and as a teacher. Self-confidence as a teacher comes in part from thorough professional preparation. The teacher should have had sufficient college or university training and have done enough independent reading so that she can honestly feel that she really knows what she needs to know about education as it pertains to the segment of the school system in which she has chosen to work. For the elementary school teacher in particular this means professional competence in elementary education and especially for the specific age group with which she works. Like anyone else with similar deficiencies, teachers who are not well informed professionally are apt to feel insecure, to be apologetic about themselves and their work, to be antagonistic or arrogant in their viewpoints, to have final and perfect answers to all problems, and to have a mind closed to all new ideas. A person in such a predicament has little chance for satisfying relations with her associates whether they be pupils, teachers, or administrative or supervisory officers.

Self-confidence in one's professional competence engenders self-confidence in oneself as a person and tends to make one at ease in one's work and in relations with others. Good social adjustment is associated with a feeling of happiness, friendliness, courtesy, helpfulness, and attitudes of tolerance and kindness. One must assume that the other fellow, too, is sincere in his efforts, is without malice, and strives for the best interests of all. Differences of opinion should be viewed as honest differences, and the intellectual honesty of others should not be

questioned until there is undeniable evidence to the contrary. Unless each teacher orients herself in this way, satisfactory staff relations are impossible.

Sometimes it is said that professionally competent teachers become egotistical and thereby destroy their effectiveness. In teaching as in other fields those who know all the answers are almost sure to be the uninformed; anyone who has kept pace with the expanding frontiers of educational research and theory realizes how many questions still remain unanswered. It is sometimes said that the one who knows most knows least because he knows the limitations of present knowledge. Perhaps it would be better to say that the one who knows most is most humble. Surely real professional competence should promote humility rather than arrogance.

Understanding the other fellow and knowing his duties, his problems, and his difficulties is another important element in wholesome staff relations.³ The teacher must realize that division of labor is essential in a school staff and that other persons, such as the principal, the supervisor, the superintendent, and the custodian, are in the school system because there are duties to be performed that cannot be handled by classroom teachers. The superintendent of schools has a multitude of duties and problems that must be handled well in order that the school system may operate, that teachers may have positions and salaries, and that teachers and pupils may have appropriate facilities and materials for effective work. The superintendent must make sure that the school laws of the state are applied appropriately in the local school system and that the board of education is kept informed of modern trends in education, of current changes in state and federal practices, and receives many other kinds of information that school boards must have in order to develop good policies and appropriate procedures for administering the local schools. A school budget must be prepared each year; local tax revenues, state and federal aid, and other sources of income must be estimated; and salary schedules for teachers and other school employees must be worked out. There are also the problems associated with the repair, remodeling, and maintenance of school property and the planning, financing, and construction of new school buildings. The superintendent must determine the types of persons needed on the school staff and develop standards of professional training or other preparation for each group of employees. These are but a few of the tasks that fall on the shoulders of the superintendent of schools, but the list at least gives the teacher a small notion of the problems to which a superintendent must devote his time.

³ Kent A. Zimmerman and Elizabeth Lewton, "Teacher Personality in School Relationships," *Educational Leadership*, 8 (April, 1951), 422-428.

Some knowledge of the superintendent's duties, problems, and worries helps the teacher to understand him as a person and as a professional associate whose concern must be for the general welfare of the school system as a whole, the needs of each of its parts, and all members of the school staff.

Most of the larger school systems engage one or more general or special supervisors or consultants whose chief function is to give leadership and direction to the instructional program. In practice it is difficult to separate administration from supervision, and it is probably best if no special differentiation is sought. Supervisors are employed by school systems because the tasks to be dealt with on a system-wide basis are too numerous to be handled by the superintendent alone. They have been called supervisors because most of their duties relate to problems of the curriculum, methods, and materials and because in the beginning their function was largely that of supervising or directing the instructional program. At present, in most school systems, supervisors are viewed as administrative assistants to the superintendent and are given special duties regarding the instructional program.

In order to take fullest advantage of such supervisors as the school system may have, the teacher must know why supervisors are employed, what their spheres of activity are, and how to get the most help from them. Supervisors, usually persons with broad as well as highly specialized training, are qualified to render services not otherwise available. The major functions of supervisors are (1) to give expert advice and guidance on instructional and school management problems, (2) to implement ways and means of bringing about improvements in the program of the local schools, (3) to implement and coordinate the in-service professional development of teachers and principals, (4) to coordinate on a system-wide basis those aspects of schoolwork on which system-wide uniformity is desirable and to encourage individual-school deviation from system-wide practice, and (5) to coordinate administrative, organizational, and instructional problems.

These functions delineate the sphere of their operations but do not tell the real story of why supervisors are employed. Throughout all their activities their real purpose is to help teachers do the best job of teaching of which they are capable and to help them grow personally and professionally as they continue to serve the schools. Teachers should realize that the chief contribution of the supervisor is that of a helper and that his services should be sought frequently and in connection with all types of curriculum, method, and school-management problems.

Many teachers foolishly build up in their own minds the idea that

the supervisor is the "big boss" to whom they must look for directions, whom they must please, and whom they must fear. It is for this reason that some teachers shudder whenever the supervisor visits the classroom or calls them in for a conference. Unfortunately there have been supervisors who were veritable despots, but today a supervisor who must be obeyed, feared, cajoled, and pleased is unworthy of the position. Most supervisors believe in and practice democratic relations with teachers and principals. Today's supervisors recognize that the only kind of educational program that belongs in the classroom is a program the teacher understands, believes in, and is skilled in putting into practice. They recognize that the teacher is the key person in the educational program and that the supervisor's function is to help her do a good job and become a better teacher. Teachers, therefore, not only should feel that they can have free, frank, impersonal professional relations with supervisors, they should seek their help, request them to visit their classes, and ask for conferences. Professionally competent teachers, it need hardly be added, have no hesitancy about frequent and close working relations with supervisors.

Of the various administrative and supervisory persons in a school system the principal is the teacher's closest working associate. In some school systems the role of the principal is restricted to administrative matters, and supervisors are supposed to look after instructional affairs; in others the principal is expected to be a professional leader in all administrative and supervisory problems. In either case the teacher will have many problems each week on which she will wish the advice of the principal. The teacher should realize that the function of the principal is to run the interference, to clear the way, to provide materials, and in other ways help the teacher to do the best job the circumstances will permit. The principal, too, should be viewed as a helper, and teachers should feel free to discuss their problems with him. The successful operation of a good school program requires the wholehearted cooperation of all.

Relations with Other Teachers

A teacher's closest professional associates are other teachers in the same building. There are literally dozens of times each week when teachers in the same building have contact with one another: in the morning before school starts, at noon, after school hours when teachers have a chance to see one another, to say "hello," and to chat about this or that. On many occasions two or more teachers cooperate in supervising children's activities when groups of children join in physical education, auditorium programs, excursions, or some other activity.

There are also faculty meetings and numerous committees on which several teachers serve.

In these extensive teacher-teacher relations within the same building the same basic viewpoints presented in the preceding section should prevail: an unqualified belief in the other person's sincerity, integrity, and willingness to be helpful. All learning does not come from books; each of us can learn a great deal from the experiences of others. This give-and-take among teachers should occur frequently, in staff meetings, in committee meetings, in classroom visiting, and in other ways. Every other teacher can be a resource, a help, and a source of professional stimulation and growth if the relations among teachers are on a wholesome professional plane, a plane that should be the goal of every teacher.

Relations to the School System as a Whole

The teacher's relations discussed thus far in this chapter have dealt largely with those a teacher has in a given school. Except in small school districts, there are several, frequently more than a hundred, schools in a school system. Each teacher is a member of the school system as a whole as well as a member of the staff of a particular school. This broader role of the teacher has several aspects that should be understood clearly by every member of the staff.

The teacher's own attitudes and convictions are of primary importance here, for every teacher should consider herself a staff member of the school system as a whole. The teacher's personal welfare as well as the conditions under which she works in a particular school are dependent in large measure upon the circumstances and policies that prevail in that system. Some teachers make the unfortunate mistake of associating their destiny in a most intimate fashion with a particular school, even to the extent of feeling that they have experienced a personal affront or even of threatening to resign if they are asked to shift to another building in the district. Such childish attitudes show that the teacher has no clear conception of her role.

These statements do not imply that the teacher should refrain from developing an attachment to a particular school. Every teacher should have interest and pride in and loyalty to the staff, the children, and the program of the school in which she works. To have such an attitude toward a given school does not rule out a thoughtful feeling of affiliation to the school system as a whole.

The teacher's position in the school system will result in frequent opportunities to participate in projects and to discuss problems that

affect the program of the whole school system or involve staff members from other buildings and the central office. A few illustrations will suffice to clarify the point. Suppose the building in which the teacher works is sadly in need of repair or new equipment. The rate and the sequence in which these needs are remedied must be determined by the needs of other schools in the district and the funds available. In the interest of all the children in the district the available funds must be allocated equitably and one school cannot be favored at the expense of others. Other illustrations relate to teachers' welfare, in-service education, and curriculum revision. It is not uncommon for committees of teachers to be invited to discuss or to develop recommendations on salary schedules, sick leave, or tenure. If a school program is to remain abreast of educational and social trends, every teacher must constantly further her own professional development and effect improvements in the school program. In most school systems teachers now have opportunities to serve on committees that plan in-service educational activities for the school staff and on committees that deal with curriculum revision. Teachers of today are thus given many opportunities to serve the school system as a whole.

The Teacher as an Organizer

In addition to giving thoughtful attention to relations to the community, to the administrative personnel of the school, and to other teachers in the school, there are many duties other than those of an instructional nature claiming the attention of the teacher. Many of these duties have certain administrative aspects. The remainder of this chapter is concerned with the administrative aspects of the teacher's responsibilities.

One of the most important responsibilities of the teacher is the necessity for being a skillful organizer and manager. Every enterprise needs some form of organization, and the way in which it is organized and managed has much to do with its success and worth. Lack of organization can jeopardize the quality of children's school activities. Organization and management must be consistent with the purposes to be achieved through an activity.

The principles just stated have numerous applications in the teacher's work. The teacher usually has considerable freedom in designing the daily and weekly schedule for her class. This schedule should reflect and implement the basic curriculum philosophy that prevails in the school system. If the curriculum is organized in terms of subjects taught in isolation with major emphasis upon the acquisition of academic prowess, the classroom schedule should be arranged so that it is

consistent with these conceptions. If educational objectives are more broadly conceived, and a broad-fields or common-activities-of-living curriculum prevails in the school, then the classroom schedule should implement them. The kind of school program envisioned by the preceding chapters of this book would call for a classroom schedule that provides longer class periods for good portions of the day and flexibility in time allotments. The essential point is that the teacher has considerable control over the management of the school day and the school week, that she should manage the use of school time in ways that are consistent with the values sought and the nature of children's activities, and that her management of school time determines in large part the kind of education children receive.

Management of the School Plant

The teacher's skill as an organizer is tested not only in the careful attention given to the organization of curricular activities but also in the attention given to the care and use of the school building, grounds, and equipment. The responsibilities of the teacher in this area are threefold: the use of the classroom itself, the equitable use of the various school facilities other than the teacher's own classroom, and the general care of school property.

Since certain phases of classroom management have been treated in previous chapters, only a few elements will be mentioned here. The physical environment in the classroom has much to do with children's comfort, interest, and effort. Classroom housekeeping, which is an ever present problem, has to be organized and managed expeditiously; otherwise it will interfere with good teaching practices. There must be a plan for the care of the children's wraps and for their access to them. Plants, animals, the aquarium, exhibits, and room decorations must be looked after regularly. Papers and pencils must be kept off the floor and general room cleanliness should be maintained. Books and papers must be distributed, used, cared for, and collected at various times. The classroom library must be kept in working order and the books changed periodically. Classroom committees may be appointed to look after these matters as well as maintaining temperature, ventilation, and lighting at the comfort level; but the teacher must be constantly alert to make sure that the physical surroundings are at a level that encourages optimum comfort and effort. It is so easy for teacher and pupils to become absorbed in their classroom activities that they become oblivious to the fact that the temperature has climbed to eighty or more, that the room is stuffy, and that the sun has passed

the point in its orbit where the shades no longer need to be drawn or should have been drawn an hour ago.

Management of the seating arrangement within the classroom is also the teacher's responsibility. Children should be seated so that they get the best light on their books or seatwork, yet grouped in ways that will facilitate the types of activities being carried forward. It is difficult to have an effective discussion if pupils are sitting in straight rows looking at each other's necks. Effective group discussion requires face-to-face relations, or a circular seating arrangement so that all in the group can see the speaker. A listening situation calls for a seating arrangement quite different from that of a group discussion. The teacher should change the seating arrangement in the classroom whenever different types of activities make such readjustments desirable.

Nearly every school has some facilities used in common by several or all class groups: the library, the gymnasium, the auditorium, the lunchroom, the playground, the lavatories, special music, art, or visual-aids rooms. Each teacher must realize that these facilities were designed to be used by all the children. Taking turns in their use means that every teacher must cooperate in developing a schedule that allows each special room to be utilized on as nearly a full-time basis as possible and at the same time provides all classes an equal opportunity to enjoy it. Naturally, each teacher must also assume responsibility for proper supervision of the special room and its equipment while her class is using it.

Some school buildings and grounds give the impression that the chief objective of the school program is the neglect and destruction of school property and the inculcation in children of ideals and habits of slovenliness, pilfering, carelessness, and a general "devil may care" attitude. In such schools the seats are carved full of initials, desks are broken and abandoned in classroom corners and halls, window shades are ragged, torn, and discolored, patches of plaster have fallen from walls and ceiling, doorknobs and panels are missing from the doors, hinges are loose, odor and filth make toilet rooms offensive, shrubbery on the school grounds is nonexistent or looks like desert sage, and weeds and mud puddles dot the playground. Motion-picture projectors, mimeograph machines, phonographs, radios, and typewriters haven't been in good working order for months or years. Yet some people call such a place a school.

This picture is not overdrawn. Anyone who wishes to take the trouble can find such schools in any state in the Union. One reason why they still scourge the educational scene is that the teachers in them have no vision of what education can and should be, no concept of the

educational influence of the child's environment, no notion of what a teacher must do to guide children into active and eager participation in the improvement and care of the school plant and equipment. Yet it is easy to see how teachers, through the cooperative participation of their classes, may assume leadership and responsibility for the general care of school property and equipment. The old saying that charity begins at home applies to the care of the school plant. Much of what is involved in education for character, citizenship, conservation, thrift, and cleanliness stems from children's attitudes toward the school plant. In fact, it is not an exaggeration to say that no school can expect to inculcate these values unless its teachers and pupils are conscious of their responsibility for its plant.

Textbook Management

Free textbooks are a corollary to compulsory education in a democracy. There is no point in requiring children to go to school if there are no books at school for them. In most states today textbooks are provided either by the state or by the local school district.

In many instances the local systems do not have any choice concerning the specific text to be used for a certain subject area since the text has been selected by a state committee for state-wide use. In other instances the local school system is given a choice of one of several texts selected by the state committee. When the local district rather than the state furnishes the texts local committees make the selection. Thus one of the responsibilities of the teacher in regard to textbooks may be that of selection if she is appointed to a local textbook committee. Teachers who serve on such committees need to be familiar with the criteria for textbook selection. Such criteria assume an understanding of children on the level for which the book is being selected, their needs, interests, and abilities, as well as a knowledge of the aims of the field to be served by the text being considered and the best means of achieving these aims.

There are four major points at which the teacher becomes involved in the management of textbooks. At the opening of the school term the books needed by the class must be secured from the bookroom and distributed to the children. Usually the bookroom maintains an account with each teacher and the teacher is held responsible for the return of the books issued to her. The teacher in turn checks the books out to the pupils. Sometimes an account, in the form of a card, is kept for each pupil. Getting the books from the bookroom and checking them out to the pupils comprise the first two phases of the teacher's responsibility in textbook management.

The other two phases relate to the children's use and return of the

books and the return of the books to the bookroom. The teacher is responsible for guiding children in the use and care of books in their possession. If a book is lost or damaged beyond reasonable wear the pupil is ordinarily expected to pay for it. Usually the teacher collects these payments, turns the money in at the office, and squares the account with the bookroom. At the end of the term the children check their books in to the teacher, who in turn sees that the books get back to the bookroom. Each school has its own procedures and records for handling these four phases of textbook management.

Library Purchases and Uses

Most modern elementary schools have a central library that serves as a custodial and circulating center for all types of instructional resources, such as books, pictures, bulletins, slides, phonograph records, and exhibit materials. The classroom teacher has two functions in connection with the school library. She is expected to instruct children in the use of the library, including the use of the card catalogue, how to secure and return a book, and the care of books. Since each classroom should be supplied generously with supplementary reading materials pertaining to the units in progress, the teacher must take the initiative in bringing to the classroom whatever books are available. In addition to books, the teacher must know what pictures, records, and slides are available so that these, too, may be utilized in the instructional program. A rich educational environment in the classroom requires that teacher and pupils use the library extensively. The supply of books and other resources brought to the classroom should be a changing collection, so that the available bookcase space in the classroom is always utilized for materials pertinent to the instructional units in progress.

The teacher's second function in library management deals with the selection of materials for the library. In most schools teachers are expected to recommend new purchases to be made by the library. Usually individual teachers may make recommendations but not infrequently they are made by committees of teachers. Such recommendations cover all types of materials provided by the library. In order to be qualified to recommend the purchase of materials the teacher must know what new books and instructional aids are placed on the market each year.

Instructional Supplies

Books and instructional supplies are indeed the tools of the classroom and are of primary importance for the learner, the teacher, and the curriculum maker. Since they furnish the media through which

many of the educational processes operate, the quantity and character of these tools of learning determine in no small measure the methods teachers use and the actual outcomes of school activities.



"That one has the best illustrations and the clearest type."

Most school systems today appropriate funds to be used for the purchase of instructional supplies such as paper of all kinds, erasers, pencils, pens, crayons, paints, and hundreds of other items needed in a modern school program. A study published in 1952 gave information concerning the expenditure for instructional supplies other than textbooks, supplementary books, and audio-visual equipment and supplies.³ The annual expenditure per pupil for these instructional supplies in 107 cities of all sizes averaged \$4.21; the range was from \$3.33 in 12 cities of more than 500,000 population to \$6.33 in 16 cities of less than 30,000 population.

Since the teacher is the logical person to know what types of supplies are required in the instructional program, she should keep herself informed on what is available and where it may be secured. In the past many teachers have been so negligent that they have been unable to give constructive guidance to those responsible for determining the list of supplies to be ordered. As a result many school stock-rooms are filled with supplies that are inappropriate and hence never used while teachers plod along with a program made mediocre because of the unavailability of essential materials. To avoid these absurd, wasteful, and unnecessary conditions, every school should have a

faculty committee that has a continuing responsibility for appraising the appropriateness and adequacy of the instructional supplies. Every teacher, whether or not a member of such a committee, has a role to play in helping the school system to make the best use of the funds available for these materials.

Most schools have a stockroom of some kind in which supplies are placed when they reach the school. Usually the stockroom is organized so that each type of article can be found easily and obtained with a minimum of red tape. A well-organized stockroom maintains a continuous inventory of supplies and requires constant effort if it is to be kept functioning smoothly. Even though much of the routine of operating the stockroom is performed by a secretary, it soon becomes a chaotic jumble unless each teacher does her share in maintaining its working efficiency by observing its operating procedures.

In school systems where the school buildings themselves do not have adequate space for storing supplies on a long-term basis, teachers must requisition frequently from the central warehouse. In this event the teacher must understand the requisition procedure and know the correct way to make out the requisition form. Frequently much time is lost because requisitions are improperly made. Teachers should know the schedule of deliveries to each school so that requisitions are presented in time to secure supplies before they are needed in the classroom.

Classroom use of instructional materials, the teacher's third role in the management of supplies, has two aspects. The first is the appropriate classroom use of each type of supply. Sometimes perfectly good supplies have mediocre value because they are incorrectly used. The second phase deals with children's economical use of supplies. Much is said these days about thrift and conservation education. A good place to apply these educational values is in children's use of school supplies. The fact that these supplies are furnished free by the school should not justify their wanton misuse or waste. Supplies will not be used economically, however, until the children have developed a genuine concern for their economic value and the importance of using them wisely.

Health and Welfare Services

In addition to the teacher's administrative duties pertaining to the organization of her classroom and management of textbooks, library books, and other instructional supplies, another duty pertains to the health and welfare services of the school.

The success of any school program for the protection and promo-

tion of children's health depends on the wholehearted interest and active cooperation of the classroom teacher. The many channels utilized by the elementary school to achieve the objectives of the health and safety program were discussed in Chapter 5. Many of the aspects of the health and welfare services constitute a part of the administrative role of the teacher in that the teacher is the chief agent either in initiating and performing the services or in cooperating with others who initiate the service. The teacher is directly responsible for one of the most common health services, that of daily observation of children's health. From such observations the teacher should be able to identify the children who deviate from their usual health status and to determine whether their symptoms suggest the presence of some communicable disease.

In many of the more modern schools the classroom teacher is expected to administer the screening tests in vision and hearing and to record the height and weight of each child at stated intervals. The latter two measures are made periodically as a part of the program to obtain developmental data on each child. Most classroom teachers are responsible for planning a daily schedule that promotes child health. Such a schedule should make appropriate provision for rest, relaxation, play, and variation in activities. The teacher must also assume major responsibility for the mental health of the children and for school sanitation.

Somewhat less direct but nonetheless important duties fall on the teacher in connection with safety in all its aspects, periodic medical and dental examinations, first aid, correction of defects, and health records. Practices vary from school to school, but in most cases the teacher cooperates in the administration of these services. In many instances the services are initiated and managed by some other staff member but the teacher is expected to assist. Many times teachers play a strategic role in urging children and parents to have physical defects corrected or in identifying pupils in need of special medical, dental, welfare, or psychological services.

The teacher's concern for children's growth and well-being makes her the logical person to utilize community resources for individual pupil needs. For example, when a child requires clothes or shoes or more food, the teacher should know what community agencies to turn to.

Records and Reports

The teacher has many and varied responsibilities regarding the numerous records every school keeps and the reports it makes. Accurate

and adequate records are as important in education as in business, for without them there is no way of knowing the status of any phase of the school's work.

The school census. Every state requires that a house-to-house canvass be made at periodic intervals to ascertain the names, ages, and addresses of all children within certain age limits. The frequency with which the census must be taken, the method of taking it, and the age group to be included vary from state to state; but there is no exception to the principle that an accurate census taken with adequate frequency is basic to the state's responsibility of providing an education for all children. In some states the census is used as a basis for distributing state and county school funds.

The teacher's relation to the school census varies somewhat depending on the size of the school system and on local practices. In the districts in which the teachers themselves are asked to take the census they must be familiar with all the legal aspects of census taking as well as the forms used and the procedure to be followed in house-to-house canvassing. Even though the teacher does not participate in taking the census, she should be familiar with the law in the state in which she teaches. The census list becomes the official list against which the school checks its population to determine whether all children who should be in school are actually there. The teacher, who keeps the record of daily attendance, thus has the original record of the school population and is in the key position to discover those children who should be looked up by the attendance officer and brought to school.

In a large school these functions are part of the duties of the principal's office, but in a smaller school the teacher may be the one to take the census, to compare the school population list with the census list, and to call at the homes of nonattenders or to report their names to an attendance officer. A large proportion of the illiteracy in the United States can be attributed to lax or inadequate methods of relating census data to school membership and attendance records and laxity in the enforcement of the compulsory school-attendance laws. Statistics show that each year in the United States there are approximately five million children aged five to seventeen, inclusive, who are not enrolled in any school, public or private.

Attendance. It has been generally recognized that compulsory attendance is essential to free public education and that the state is responsible for making sure that all its children receive schooling. All states have compulsory school-attendance laws, the lower age limits for compulsory attendance ranging from six to eight years, the upper limits ranging from fourteen to eighteen years.

The original record of each child's attendance is made by the teacher to whom the child reports at the opening of each morning and afternoon session. Most schools provide the teacher with an attendance register in which the record for each child is to be kept, but the teacher needs to devise a scheme for taking and recording the attendance at the opening of each half-day session. In larger schools the principal's office requests a list of absentees shortly after the school session has opened. Pupil assistants may deliver these reports to the office. In many schools the principal or a secretary telephones the home to ascertain the cause of absence. In some schools a pupil assistant from each room makes the calls. If the child's home cannot be reached by telephone, inquiry may be made from a neighbor or the teacher may visit it as soon as a convenient time can be found. It may be assumed that an occasional absence of a child who is normally in regular attendance is for legitimate reasons, so that the inquiry at the home is to make sure that the parents know that the child is not in school and to express the school's interest in the child. Home visits by the principal, the teacher, or an attendance officer are usually restricted to cases in which an extended absence or very irregular attendance prevails.

Most schools require the teacher to make a summary report of attendance at the end of each month or six-weeks period and at the end of the semester or year. Usually the school provides the blanks on which such reports are to be made, but the teacher must be able to make the correct summaries and the appropriate entries. The individual attendance record kept by the teacher serves as the official legal record in the event that court action is required in cases of illegal absence.

Individual cumulative records. Every school keeps some kind of cumulative record for each child. In most schools it is a card on which data regarding attendance, grade placement, achievement, and certain other items are recorded from year to year—in short, a record of the child's school history. In recent years many school systems have changed from an abbreviated permanent record card to a more comprehensive type of cumulative record that gives many kinds of developmental data.

The classroom teacher is usually responsible for gathering and recording most of the original data for cumulative records. These include measurements of height, weight, vision, and hearing and the scores on mental and achievement tests. The anecdotal records also kept by the teacher are used in conferences with parents and in guiding the growth and development of each child.

Health records. A preceding paragraph discussed the scope of the health program as well as the teacher's role in it. Objective data

on children's health and growth are as basic to a good school program as information on emotional, mental, and educational matters. In some schools health data are recorded on a health record, which is a card separate from the so-called permanent record card; in other school systems the health data are made a part of a comprehensive cumulative record.

School marks. Many school systems today still use some kind of comparative marking system and expect each teacher to record an appraisal of each pupil once every six or nine weeks. The A, B, C, D, F marking scheme is still widely used, although many school systems have developed variations. Among the variations are found the following: (a) use of S and U, satisfactory and unsatisfactory; (b) use of percentage grades; (c) use of letter or percentage symbols supplemented by a check list of personality and character traits; (d) use of a "check-form" type; and (e) use of number grades (1, 2, 3, 4, and 5).

Every marking scheme, regardless of its details, involves one or both of two basic ideas: a comparison of the performance or achievement of a given pupil with the others in the class group or the comparison of a given pupil with course-of-study or other standards adopted for the group or grade in which the child happens to be. Neither of these underlying assumptions really tells very much about the child's actual status. A child may be low, average, or high in reading compared with the group or the standards for the grade, but one still does not know whether the child's reading abilities are equivalent to those of a six-year-old, an eight-year-old, or a fourteen-year-old. Neither does one know in which aspect of reading the child excels and in which aspects he is deficient. In fact, a comparative marking scheme tells very little about a child's growth and development.

These limitations have led a few school systems to abandon comparative marking schemes altogether and to substitute for them some system of objective data that would enable a teacher to observe the kinds and amounts of progress a child is making. One of the first attempts at interpreting growth through means of objective data was made in the area of physical development. For example, if a teacher knows that a year ago a child's height was equivalent to the average height of children of his chronological age and that now his height is slightly above or below the average of children of the same chronological age, then the teacher can conclude that during the twelve months that have just elapsed this youngster has grown so many inches in height, that he is growing but at a somewhat faster or slower rate than the average child during that age interval, and that even now this child's height is very near the average for children of his age. Objective data of other types, such as the child's weight and his achievement in

academic fields, may be analyzed in similar fashion so that a child's progress is compared with his own previous status, the only really satisfactory basis for comparison.



"There must be some mistake about Sally's report card," etc.

When objective developmental data are used the continuing use of a comparative marking system becomes pointless. The headaches and heartaches of teachers, pupils, parents, relatives, and neighbors that inevitably accompany a comparative marking system can be avoided and the study and observation of each child's growth and development placed on an objective and educationally sound basis.

Reporting to parents. Many teachers have always been dissatisfied with the conventional and familiar type of report card, and parents are increasingly becoming dissatisfied also. The typical card used in many schools today is a fairly small one that provides spaces for the child's name and grade, days present or absent, times tardy, the teacher's marks (one of the several systems described in the previous discussion of school marks), and a place for the parent to sign each time the card is sent home. It is not difficult to understand why this type of report is inadequate as a means of communication between school and home.

Dissatisfaction has led many school systems during the past twenty-five years to experiment with other types of reporting. Among these newer forms of reports have been (1) use of a "check-form" type of

report; (2) use of informal letters, and (3) use of teacher-parent conferences. Some schools use a combination of the typical report card and one of these newer procedures. Although at present there are still many different forms of reporting to parents, certain definite trends have been identified.⁴ Today's schools are concerned with the physical, social, and emotional as well as the academic development of children; hence, there has been a trend away from subject-centered toward pupil-centered reports. Such reports include the use of more descriptive and anecdotal material pertinent to social, emotional, and personality development. There is a trend away from the use of comparative marking systems, the current tendency being to emphasize the individual pupil's progress rather than to compare his achievement with that of his fellow pupils; thus there is less tendency to pass judgment and more emphasis on the analysis of problems and difficulties. Another trend is toward the use of fewer but more significant reports, particularly in regard to the use of letters and parent-conferences as a supplement to or substitute for the report card. Teacher-parent conferences have proved extremely valuable since parents can get a much clearer understanding of the child's progress in an informal talk with the teacher than from the formal report card. These conferences are also very helpful to the teacher in that the parents can give much information about the child, thereby helping the teacher to a better understanding of the child and his problems. Thus working together and evaluating together, the school and the home can join forces in their common efforts to help the child achieve his optimum development.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced the reader to the teacher's administrative role. Altogether too frequently teachers fail to comprehend the extensive administrative role they fill in carrying forward the work of the schools. Sometimes the lack of appreciation of this fact has led to the false notion that teachers and administrators are two different groups of people with entirely different functions. It is true that division of labor has become essential in the larger school systems and that administrators perform one set of duties and teachers perform another, but *both* groups engage in administrative duties of various kinds. Increasingly in many school systems teachers are asked to participate in solving some of the administrative problems that formerly were handled by administrators (and supervisors) only.

In analyzing the implications of the teacher's administrative role,

⁴ Ida B. DePencier, "Trends in Reporting Pupil Progress in the Elementary Grades, 1938-1949," *Elementary School Journal*, 51 (May, 1951), 519-522.

the chapter dwelt first on the teacher's orientation to the state, national, and international scene and her role in the larger problem of educating people for intelligent self-government and world peace. In discharging these broader obligations the teacher has a unique part to play in determining the scope and character of the education of a particular group of children in a particular school building in a particular community. The real roots of a teacher's labors lie in a local school situation, but the fruits of that labor have the widest implications.

In guiding the education of a given group of pupils, the teacher engages in many school management activities, ranging from matters pertaining rather directly to children as individuals or as groups, such as classroom organization and management and health and welfare services, to matters relating to the school system as a whole, such as salary schedules and in-service education problems. In each of the several areas the teacher must recognize her administrative role and be willing to fill it in the best interests of the school.

The following generalizations are to be remembered from this chapter.

1. Intelligent self-government is possible only among well-educated people.
2. Although the teacher's primary orientation is to the educational system of the local community and the state in which the community happens to be, her broader professional orientation is to the nation as a whole and the world at large.
3. Each teacher is an agent for peace and the welfare of mankind.
4. The teacher is in the forefront in the community's educational program and in the last analysis determines the scope and character of children's education.
5. Free textbooks and other instructional resources are a corollary to free compulsory education.
6. The teacher has a broad administrative role.
7. Democratic, cooperative group methods in studying and dealing with school problems produce the best school programs.

Recommended Additional Reading

1. Baxter, Bernice, Gertrude M. Lewis, and Gertrude M. Cross. *The Role of Elementary Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1952. Chap. 17, "A Brief Summary of the Teacher's Task."
2. Elsbree, Willard S., and Harold J. McNally. *Elementary School Administration and Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1951. Part IV, "Administering Special Services," Part V, "Management of the School Building, Supplies, and Equipment."

3. Hymes, James L., Jr. *Effective Home-School Relations*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.
4. *It Starts in the Classroom: A Public Relations Handbook for Classroom Teachers*. Washington: National School Public Relations Association, A Department of the National Education Association of the United States, 1951.

Suggested Student Activities

1. Request a teacher from a nearby school to meet with the group and have her describe the ways in which she handles such administrative matters as health and welfare services, textbook management, and records and reports.
2. Visit a nearby elementary school and request the principal to show you the library, the bookroom, and the storeroom for supplies. Ask him to describe their routines for managing these three service units, placing special stress upon the role of the teacher.
3. View the filmstrip *It Starts in the Classroom* (National School Public Relations Association, A Department of The National Education Association of the United States, Washington).



The Teacher as Person, Citizen, and Professional Worker

It should never be forgotten that a teacher has her individual life to live, that she is a citizen, that she is also a professional worker. No doubt this statement could be made about persons in many other walks of life, but it is especially applicable to teachers for the following reasons.

The Teacher as a Person

Teachers are persons, human beings like other members of the human race. This remark, trite though it is, can hardly be repeated too often, for altogether too many people (parents, school-board members, administrative and supervisory officers, and fellow teachers) forget that fact. If we wish to discuss teachers, to deal with teachers, and to understand teachers we must remember that they are ordinary human beings and that the fundamentals of human psychology are as applicable to them as to anyone else.

But all human beings cannot teach, even if they want to. In the realm of individual variation from the large body of common traits, one may find those characteristics that predispose to success as a teacher. People who lack the traits and tendencies essential for teaching, or who have them in only average or less than average amount, cannot succeed or be happy in teaching. In the interest of their own and society's welfare they should select and prepare themselves for some other vocation.

Success in teaching, however, does not require some one particular

type of personality. There is no single, typical "teaching personality." In fact, variety in personality types makes for an enrichment of children's education. Yet there are certain fundamental qualities that all teachers must possess.¹ Variation as well as common qualities in teachers is reflected in the following quotation taken from a publication of an Illinois board of education.

The personality of a teacher is an extremely important factor. Without meaning to imply that there is any fixed type or pattern of personality that we look for (indeed, we welcome variety), we think there are a few general traits which good teachers have in common, and which are the evidences of mental health. Among them are such qualities as emotional stability, broad and balanced personal interests, the desire to be helpful and cooperative with other members of the staff, interest in community and civic affairs.²

One of the important personal qualifications for teaching is that the individual should be the kind of person that we should like all people to be, a person who has achieved a wholesome philosophy of life; who has an integrated, serene, stable personality; who has acquired respected ideals and sound attitudes; and whose daily conduct manifests an application of the ideals and principles in which she believes. Other people speak of such a person as fair, honest, reliable, cheerful, cooperative, adaptable, tactful, sincere, sympathetic, and of good judgment.

The fact that most parents want their children's teachers to be of such high caliber is a tribute to teachers but it also raises certain issues that teachers need to understand clearly. Parental concern over the kind of people in charge of their children is natural. Some parents want their children to become better persons than they themselves have been able to become. Parents know that teachers exert much influence on children; hence they want their children's teachers to be and to manifest in their personalities and conduct the type of person that they visualize as the ideal into which they hope their children will grow. No doubt parents' ideal of a teacher is a subtle and unvoiced and perhaps subconscious conception, but it is real nevertheless. Although they have no desire to ask or demand unreasonable or superhuman qualities in a teacher, they hope that their children's teachers will, by word and deed, motivate and assist them to high personal qualities.

Most parents want teachers to be natural, normal human beings who live normal lives. Unreasonable restrictions on the private lives of teachers have largely disappeared in most communities, but teachers

¹ Kimball Wiles, "When Is a Teacher Mature?" *Educational Leadership*, 8 (May, 1951), 493-496.

² *The Glencoe Plan: Toward a Profession of Teaching* (Glencoe, Ill.: Board of Education, 1947).

are usually asked to refrain from certain social activities in which only the less respected or less desirable members of the community engage. Such limitations should not be objectionable to teachers.

A genuine love for children. Another personal trait essential for continued happiness in teaching is a genuine love for children and a desire to work with them. No amount of training in child psychology can substitute for an innate love for children. But there is a vast difference between a sincere love for children and a blind emotionalized attachment. In fact teachers who are highly emotional in their attitude toward children or who form deep emotional attachments to particular children can never become well-balanced teachers. Contrary to the opinions of some, a teacher is not supposed to be a substitute for a child's mother or father, and a teacher should not develop any feeling that approaches mother love for any pupil.

A genuine interest in children, although a prerequisite for success in teaching, is not the only one. An objective and intellectual approach to working with them adds flavor and excitement to a teacher's natural love for children without betraying her into emotionalized sentimentality.

A dash of missionary spirit. Persons who find satisfaction in teaching are undoubtedly people who desire to help others and are willing to devote their lives to the improvement of society. Conversely, persons who do not find satisfaction in helping others probably do not enjoy teaching.

The desire to help others is also dominant in the personality of those who enjoy nursing, social work, medicine, and dentistry. Perhaps it would be safe to say that success and satisfaction in any one of the professions is based, in part at least, upon a dash of the missionary spirit. But there is moderation in all things. No one expects the teacher to make a martyr of herself by spending unduly long hours or all her spare time at the task of safeguarding the morals and general well-being of the children and adults in the community.

Helping others, from a teacher's standpoint, does not mean welfare or charity service; it means helping others to help themselves. This largely educational task means helping children (and adults) to acquire skills, habits, attitudes, and knowledge that they can apply effectively in life situations. It also means helping them to identify and analyze their problems and guiding them in developing the wisest solutions. Helping others to use their minds and their resources to better advantage is the area in which the teacher expresses her desire to serve.

Certain personal characteristics. In addition to the personal factors already mentioned, there are certain characteristics that are highly important as personal equipment for teaching. Good health is

one of them. Teaching is hard work; it makes an especially heavy drain on a person's nervous energy. Unless one has abundant vitality, has continued vigorous good health, and is free from nervous tensions one should not go into teaching. Good vision and good hearing are also basic requirements for continued success in teaching. The person who does not have good health is subject to undue fatigue, and fatigue leads to irritability, poor teacher-pupil relations, and ultimate dissatisfaction in one's work.

Intellectual curiosity and a craving for knowledge are other desirable traits of good teachers. A teacher must be a person who is interested in being a student and whose student tendencies continue throughout life. As a rule, when teachers stagnate intellectually they cease to be good teachers. The best teachers have a contagious type of intellectual curiosity, which automatically injects itself into their work with children.

Then there are also such questions as these: Do you really like to be with people? Are you stimulated but not overstimulated by groups of people? Can you explain things easily and clearly to others? Do you have patience? Do you like hard work? If you can honestly say yes to all these questions, you may feel that you have most of the personal traits essential for success and happiness in teaching.

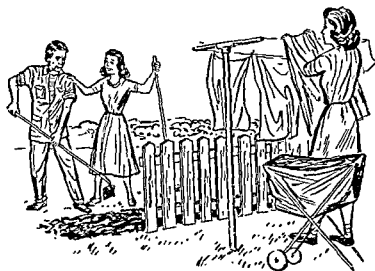
Living a normal life. Every teacher should feel that she has the right to live a normal life becoming to a member of an important profession. What constitutes a normal life will vary with individuals, but a few common factors apply to all teachers. The teacher's income should be adequate to provide a comfortable, respectable living that includes time and funds for recreation and professional improvement. The teacher should feel free to choose her own forms of desirable recreation and to engage in them without apology to pupils or parents. Balanced living—work and play—are essential for the maintenance of health and a balanced, well-integrated personality. Balanced living is especially important for teachers.

Each teacher should expect complete freedom in deciding personal family affairs. Some teachers prefer to remain unmarried; others prefer to marry and to have children of their own. Normal family life according to one's own choice should be the rule.

Fortunately the prejudice against married teachers is fading away. In a survey of 1348 cities for the year 1950-1951, 41 per cent reported that in the selection of teachers married and single women were equally eligible.³ The progress made in this regard is seen in a comparison of this report with one made in 1941 in which only 5 per cent of the cities

³ "Teacher Personnel Practices: Appointment and Termination of Services," *Research Bulletin* (N.E.A.), Vol. 30, No. 1 (February, 1952).

reported unrestricted appointment of married women. The present attitude toward employment of married women is a wholesome trend because it is not likely that teaching can ever become a true profession



"Do you mean that school teachers like to do things other than read books?"

or that education can rise to its true potentials until all competent and well-qualified teachers, men and women, can look forward to a lifelong career in teaching.

More Men Teachers Needed

Women have made themselves indispensable in numerous business, industrial, commercial, and service fields, but there was a time when teaching was about the only major occupation in which it was considered appropriate for women to seek employment. One would think that the vast increase in the number of vocational outlets for women, the increase in the number of gainfully employed women, and the corresponding tendency to bring about a more balanced proportion of men and women workers in each of the vocational fields would result in a more even division of men and women in teaching. Such a trend, if present, is progressing much too slowly to meet the needs of the situation.

The Research Division of the National Education Association has made the following estimates of the number of men and women teachers in public schools in 1953-1954.⁴

	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Total</i>
Elementary Schools	97,844	582,331	680,175
Secondary Schools	160,056	188,668	348,724
	257,900	770,999	1,028,899

The number of men teachers in elementary schools has increased noticeably; there were only 35,610 men teachers in elementary schools, compared with 568,838 women in 1944.⁵ However, the small proportion of men teachers is still conspicuous in elementary schools. As set forth by Boroughs,⁶ one of the primary aims of education is social development; since our society is composed of both men and women, how can children be expected to adjust fully to out-of-school life if they are deprived during their school years of contacts with both men and women? The very logic of the situation demands that at least one-third to one-half of the teachers in the elementary schools should be men.

The fact that these schools have been understaffed with men has been recognized for a long time, but the problem has not received the attention it deserves. College guidance officers who are advising students should mention the urgent need for more men teachers in the elementary schools. School superintendents are well aware of the desirability of having a larger proportion of men teachers in the elementary schools and young men qualifying themselves for such positions would find ready employment.⁷

The Teacher as a Citizen

Of the several reasons why a teacher should exercise the privileges, opportunities, and responsibilities of a citizen to the fullest extent, the

⁴ Source: Courtesy of Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, Director, Research Division of the National Education Association of the United States.

⁵ Benjamin W. Frazier, *Teaching as a Career*, Bulletin No. 11 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1947), p. 6.

⁶ Homer Boroughs, Jr., "Men and Elementary Education," *Education Digest*, 16 (October, 1950), 30-31.

⁷ George E. Carrothers, "That Boy Needed a Man," *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 28 (February, 1947), 266; Wendall W. Haner, "Bring in the Male, Please," 267.

first is more or less obvious. The teacher should be an articulate, politically intelligent citizen. If our democracy is to be effective we need more such citizens.

The second reason why a teacher should be an active citizen grows out of the teacher's occupational role. One important responsibility of teachers is that of teaching citizenship to children. To do this well the teacher must herself meet her citizenship obligations fully. Unless a teacher votes regularly and joins groups interested in promoting the welfare of the community or the state, her teaching of citizenship has the artificiality of mere book learning. Citizenship instruction by a nonparticipating teacher usually turns out to be a case of "do as I say, not as I do."

A third reason is also associated with the teacher's professional role. It is generally accepted that the school should be active in community improvement, that children should engage in school and community improvement projects, and that the school should draw upon the resources of the community for the enrichment of its instructional program. No one of these objectives is possible unless the teacher knows the community. Knowing the community involves more than a tour around the town to locate various places. Intimate contact with the group life in the community is essential if the teacher is to have more than a superficial acquaintance with it.

Benell described an incident that caused embarrassment to a certain junior high school science teacher.⁸ When, as part of the class procedure, a motion-picture film was shown, many of the pupils showed great excitement over seeing their first film. The teacher was amazed that children could have reached junior high school age without having had this experience. These children belonged to a religious group that does not allow its children to attend movies—a fact that this teacher had never taken the trouble to learn. Teachers cannot discover the mores, attitudes, and customs of a community unless they join local organizations or find other means of mingling with the people of the community.

Legal aspects. There is widespread belief in the teaching profession that teachers have been denied the right to participate in political activities as private citizens. However, as far as state laws are concerned, the restrictions upon teachers are not as burdensome as is generally believed. In general, when state laws apply to teachers' political activities, they protect the teacher's right to vote for whatever ticket he chooses. After listing the causes for which teachers under tenure may be dismissed legally, the tenure laws in Alabama and

⁸ Florence Benell, "Teachers Need Social Contacts," *The Nation's Schools*, 38 (September, 1946), 55.

Indiana state that a teacher may not be dismissed for political purposes. The Massachusetts law, on the other hand, restricts both teachers and school boards but gives certain privileges to teachers.

No committee shall by rule, regulation, or otherwise, restrict any teacher in, or dismiss him for exercising his right of suffrage, signing nomination papers, petitioning the general court or appearing before its committees, to the extent that such rights, except voting, are not exercised on the school premises during school hours, or when their exercise would actually interfere with the performance of school duties.

The present legal status of teachers' political activity is well summarized in a recent *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association:

No survey of the teacher's right to engage in political activities would be complete without references to the so-called Hatch Acts. In 1939 the United States Congress enacted what is known as the original Hatch Act. It applied to federal employees only and restricted their participation and activities in politics concerned with national elections. In 1940, the original Hatch Act was amended to include state and local employees who are employed "in connection with any activity which is financed in whole or in part by loans or grants made by the United States or by any such department, independent agency, or other agency of the United States." This provision covered a number of teachers—those employed in land-grant colleges, vocational education teachers, and all teachers in public schools in certain states where federal money was given on account of mineral lands or national forests. In 1942, at the suggestion of the National Education Association, the Hatch Act was amended to exclude teachers from certain parts of the law. As now written, the federal law prohibits teachers who are paid wholly or in part by federal funds from four kinds of political activity in connection with elections:

1. To promise employment, position, work, compensation or other benefit out of federal funds as reward for political activity, support or opposition in any election.
2. To deprive or threaten to deprive a person of employment or benefits from relief funds on account of race, creed, color, political activity, support of or opposition to a candidate or party in any election (except as penalty for violation of the act).
3. To solicit or receive or be in any way concerned in assessments, subscriptions or contributions from persons known to be employed or receiving benefits from work relief funds.
4. To furnish or disclose or to aid in furnishing or disclosing any list of names of persons on relief rolls or employed on work relief funds to a candidate, committee, campaign manager or to any person for delivery to such person; or to receive such list.

Since the passage of the original Hatch Act by the Congress, many state legislatures have enacted somewhat similar provisions with regard to state or local elections, applicable to some or all of their state and local employees. These laws are sometimes called "little Hatch Acts." Most of these state laws do not cover teachers; in fact, only Alabama, New York, and Pennsylvania have provisions which restrict teachers specifically. Certain restrictions are put upon all public officers and public employees in Louisiana and Rhode Island. These two laws would also cover teachers. . . .

None of these laws is of such scope that it can be condemned as unduly restricting the teacher's civil rights. Teachers are not included in other state laws some of which are much more restrictive; e.g., forbidding certain types of employees to serve on committees in political clubs, to sign petitions for nomination of political candidates, to appear at or near the polls on election day except for the purpose of casting their own ballots. So far as this type of law is concerned, teachers are in a freer position than many other public employees. . . .

On the other hand, a teacher's right to political freedom does not give him the privilege of advocating a particular candidate to his pupils, and a California teacher who did so was dismissed for unprofessional conduct. Thus, regardless of the lack of restrictive state laws, a teacher's political activity is bound by professional ethics and no teacher should become so involved in partisan politics as to conduct himself in a manner unbecoming to his position as a teacher.

Whatever a teacher does in politics should be done outside of school hours and off school premises. Otherwise, general powers of the schoolboard in the dismissal of teachers would probably justify action by the schoolboard against such a teacher. Provided a teacher does not violate one of the specific restrictions in the state laws discussed above, or violate a provision of the federal Hatch Act if the teacher is covered by it, he is entitled to participate in politics except as prohibited by schoolboard regulations.⁹

Professional preparation. Many factors operative during the past two decades have increased the interest in and the emphasis upon the role of the teacher as citizen and community worker. By having leaders from local concerns meet with and address the faculty and by having groups of teachers visit local plants, school systems have helped teachers to become acquainted with local commercial and industrial enterprises. In other systems boards of education, in cooperation with colleges, have arranged that summer workshops for teachers be held in the local community so that curriculum revision could take account of local

curriculums in various colleges are making possible an improvement in the political literacy of teachers by giving added stress to course offerings in this field¹⁰ and also by providing students with opportunities to gain experience in community participation.

The Teacher as a Professional Worker

Those who teach volunteer to do so. If you are a teacher, or plan to be one, you have volunteered to serve society and to earn your own livelihood through teaching. Everyone who volunteers to teach automatically takes upon herself five major obligations that she must be willing to shoulder and to carry as long as she remains a teacher.

The teacher should be a well-educated and professionally competent person. The importance of education to the future of civilization has been mentioned so often in this book that it is unnecessary to comment on it further. Education cannot discharge its responsibilities to humanity unless the schools are staffed with well-educated and professionally competent teachers. A teacher is a purveyor of the culture, a symbol of enlightenment, a standard bearer for the ideal that knowledge, truth, and understanding shall prevail over ignorance, aggression, and intolerance. The teacher is a builder of the humanity and the society of the future. These tasks cannot be achieved by persons who themselves have only a modicum of education.

The teacher's education should include a background in the physical and biological sciences, the social sciences, literature, and the fine arts. This broad general education should be accompanied by sufficient professional preparation to enable the person to become a master craftsman in working with children. The master's degree should become the minimum requirement for a regular certificate to teach in the elementary schools. Some college programs introduce into the last year or the last two years of a five-year curriculum varying amounts of part-time or full-time teaching experience. Temporary certificates could be issued to beginning teachers for a limited number of years (from one to three) until the master's degree had been obtained, at which time the teacher would become eligible for a regular certificate.

The teacher should teach school each day to the best of her knowledge and ability. Each day is important in a child's life. Negative, mediocre, or useless activities and experiences leave plateaus in the environmental motivations of growth and development. A day that is lost can never be retrieved. Whatever benefits a child is to receive during the period of his formal schooling *must* come during the very

¹⁰ George E. Outland, "American Teachers and American Politics," *Educational Leadership*, 10 (October, 1952), 15-21.

time that the child is living his school life. It is imperative, therefore, that each day be as good a day for every child as human effort and circumstances permit.

To achieve one's best each day does not imply that one must achieve perfection or that one must develop a self-satisfied, perfectionist attitude. Some teachers mislead themselves into thinking that their methods and procedures are the only correct ones and need not be changed or varied. Teachers who are real students of education know that many aspects of education are insufficiently explored by research and that for many educational problems the correct solutions are still to be found. Good teachers, however, know the best answers available today from research and theory and they also know the limitations of today's knowledge. Their present practices are in accord with that knowledge, but they are constantly alert to apply new ideas and to engage in experimentation of their own to discover better ways of teaching.

The teacher should keep herself informed on recent research and modern trends in educational theory and practice. To some, graduation from college means the completion of their education. Fortunately, however, more and more people recognize that learning is a lifelong process, college preparation has simply equipped them with a "safety minimum" of training; that is, with enough schooling so that they can begin work in their chosen fields. The rest must be learned through experience and through continuous study. Preservice college preparation has been an orientation, a "getting ready for" the lifelong pursuit of one's education. Even the attainment of the most advanced degree does not mean that the mind may be permanently closed.

Professional people are particularly obligated to keep themselves abreast of new developments in their own fields.¹¹ The patient expects his physician to have up-to-the-minute information on the latest drugs and the latest approved techniques in surgery. If the physician is negligent in this respect, and the patient lives long enough, he loses no time in changing to a physician who does keep himself up-to-date. The same standards are expected of dentists, lawyers, engineers, hospital technicians, and other professional workers. Even the plumber and electrician must be thoroughly informed on new fixtures and how to install them. Is it logical to expect anything less from teachers? Obviously not. The citizen expects, and has a right to expect, that the teachers in his schools will keep themselves abreast of the frontiers of research, theory, and practice in teaching and school management.

¹¹ Gaylord D. Morrison, "Professional Reading: Survey of Practices," *Clearing House*, 27 (October, 1952), 101-103.

Many school systems require each teacher to earn additional college credits every two, three, four, or five years, and will give a teacher a semester's or year's leave of absence for advanced study. When a board of education sends a teacher to a college or university to receive specialized training so that the teacher may render a specialized service in the school system, the school system may assist the teacher in meeting the expenses for such specialized preparation. The fact that most salary schedules provide salary differentials for persons holding masters' or higher degrees is evidence of the value placed upon better preparation.

Teachers may keep themselves up-to-date in their profession in numerous ways. Regular reading of educational and other journals and the reading of a dozen or more new books each year is one. Participation in the activities of one or more professional organizations is another. Many teachers periodically enroll in the summer sessions of some college or university. Active participation with professional associates in local school improvement and curriculum revision projects, including local curriculum workshops, is becoming a favored means of in-service professional development of teachers. Visiting other teachers at work and attendance at professional conferences are other commonly used methods. Travel on the American continents and abroad is indispensable in the education of teachers. The list could be extended indefinitely; the teacher who is interested in continuous self-improvement will find many opportunities for it.

The teacher should be an active participant each year in local school improvement projects. In the last analysis teachers are responsible for keeping school programs up-to-date, in tune with the changing nature of society and its changing demands upon its citizens, and abreast of the findings of educational research. Within the limits in which each teacher works she can make sure that her own teaching reflects the best that is known about child psychology, methods of teaching, and curriculum organization. A teacher has no excuse for allowing her teaching to be a replica of bygone days.

A second way in which teachers can help to keep local schools up-to-date is through cooperative group effort on various types of school improvement projects. Committee work of various kinds was discussed in the preceding chapter. Sometimes the committee consists only of teachers, principals, and supervisors, whereas at other times different laymen in the community may serve on it. Various kinds of problems come to the attention of these committees: self-appraisal of the schools, curriculum revision, school lunch programs, school equipment, salary schedules, and pupil transportation are illustrative. Such

projects typically involve an appraisal of present practice, the determination of desirable practice as indicated by research and theory, and ways of modifying present practice to accord with good procedure.

Teachers can also help to keep local school programs up-to-date through community education. In individual conferences with parents, in meetings with mothers' clubs, and in contacts with parent-teacher association groups, teachers have many opportunities to describe new procedures and to outline the needs of the schools. Teachers and principals are frequently invited to speak to various social and civic groups in the community. In many schools members of lay groups serve with teachers in studying school problems. Such contacts make parents familiar with school needs and with the new ideas the school staff is endeavoring to incorporate into local practice. Parents must be actively interested in school improvement because no school program can rise much above the concept of education held by the lay leaders.

*The teacher should stand up for the progress of education. Everyone who volunteers to teach should do so only after she has convinced herself that she has the essential personal qualifications, that education is a field of outstanding importance, that teaching is just as worthy a field of endeavor as any other field that one might choose, and that she is willing to shoulder the obligations that fall upon a teacher.*¹² When educational leaders have clear vision on these issues we can expect the status of the profession to be improved.

Teachers can do a great deal toward improving the profession by identifying themselves with groups and organizations that are active in the cause of education. For example, each teacher should be a regular member of the National Education Association of the United States and of the state teachers' association in the state in which she teaches. In February, 1947, the National Education Association published the following statement of policy:

WE PLEDGE the National Education Association, its resources, and its influence—in cooperation with state and local associations—to a vigorous campaign to safeguard and develop our public schools.

WE BELIEVE that a resolute program on the part of teachers everywhere to lift their economic status is essential to the welfare of the schools.

WE BELIEVE that this effort should express itself through professional group action in cooperation with responsible officials and the people on both immediate and long-range issues.

1. An adequate educational opportunity for every child is imperative for the nation's welfare.

¹² Martin Essex, "What Does Academic Freedom Mean for Elementary and Secondary Teachers?" *Educational Leadership*, 9 (January, 1952), 237-242.

2. The profession and the public must raise professional standards and improve the services of the schools.
3. Teachers should keep contracts and agreements.
4. Teachers should insist upon professional salaries.
5. Teachers in all local school systems should seek adequate salaries thru professional group action.
6. Action on such agreements should be achieved thru democratic cooperation of teachers, administrators, board members, and other community leaders.
7. More state and federal financial support for education is imperative.
8. Teachers will make most progress toward their objectives thru professional organization and by professional methods.¹³

Mere membership in professional organizations is not enough; each member should also be active in the meetings and committee work of the organization.

A third way to strengthen the profession is to stand for whatever promises to improve the school, even at the cost of some personal sacrifice or inconvenience. True leaders place school progress above personal desires.

The fourth way to promote education is to work for whatever will make teaching more effective. Schorling has made this issue tangible by outlining a bill of rights for teachers.¹⁴ Only his main headings are reproduced here.

- a. The right to teach classes that are not too large—in general, from ten to twenty pupils.
- b. The right to have time in the school day for planning.
- c. The right to a forty-five hour week.
- d. The right to an adequate amount of helpful and constructive supervision.
- e. The right to adequate compensation for the full year of fifty-two weeks.
- f. The right to have good materials and enough of them.
- g. The right to work in a room that, with the help of the students, can be made pleasant and appropriate to the tasks to be learned.
- h. The right to the same personal liberties which other respectable citizens assume for themselves as a matter of course.
- i. The right to an externship.
- j. The right to a realistic program of in-service education.
- k. The right to participate in modifying the curriculum and methods, and in formulating school policies.
- l. The right to keep from being lost in the profession.

¹³ "The Professional Way to Meet the Educational Crisis," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 36 (February, 1947), 77. Reprinted by permission.

¹⁴ Raleigh Schorling, "An Evolving Bill of Rights for Teachers," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, 17 (May, 1946), 122-126.

The fifth way to improve the status of education is to live by a good code of professional ethics such as that developed by the National Education Association of the United States and quoted below.

THE CODE OF ETHICS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

We, the Members of the National Education Association of the United States, hold these truths to be self-evident—

—that the primary purpose of education in the United States is to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen, and improve the democracy obtained through a representative government;

—that the achievement of effective democracy in all aspects of American life and the maintenance of our national ideals depend upon making acceptable educational opportunities available to all;

—that the quality of education reflects the ideals, motives, preparation, and conduct of the members of the teaching profession;

—that whoever chooses teaching as a career assumes the obligation to conduct himself in accordance with the ideals of the profession.

As a guide for the teaching profession, the members of the National Education Association have adopted this code of professional ethics. Since all teachers should be members of a united profession, the basic principles herein enumerated apply to all persons engaged in the professional aspects of education—elementary, secondary, and collegiate.

FIRST PRINCIPLE: The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide children, youth, and adults in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, to prepare them in the way of democracy, and to help them to become happy, useful, selfsupporting citizens. The ultimate strength of the nation lies in the social responsibility, economic competence, and moral strength of the individual American.

In fulfilling the obligations of this first principle, the teacher will—

1. Deal justly and impartially with students regardless of their physical, mental, emotional, political, economic, social, racial, or religious characteristics.

2. Recognize the differences among students and seek to meet their individual needs.

3. Encourage students to formulate and work for high individual goals in the development of their physical, intellectual, creative, and spiritual endowment.

4. Aid students to develop an understanding and appreciation not only of the opportunities and benefits of American democracy but also of their obligations to it.

5. Respect the right of every student to have confidential information about himself withheld except when its release is to authorized agencies or is required by law.

6. Accept no remuneration for tutoring except in accordance with approved policies of the governing board.

SECOND PRINCIPLE: The members of the teaching profession share with parents the task of shaping each student's purposes and acts toward socially acceptable ends. The effectiveness of many methods of teaching is dependent upon *cooperative relationships with the home.*

In fulfilling the obligations of this second principle, the teacher will—

1. Respect the basic responsibility of parents for their children.
2. Seek to establish friendly and cooperative relationships with the home.
3. Help to increase the student's confidence in his own home and avoid disparaging remarks which might undermine that confidence.
4. Provide parents with information that will serve the best interests of their children, and be discreet with information received from parents.
5. Keep parents informed about the progress of their children as interpreted in terms of the purposes of the school.

THIRD PRINCIPLE: The teaching profession occupies a position of public trust involving not only the individual teacher's personal conduct, but also the interaction of the school and the community. Education is most effective when these many relationships operate in a friendly, cooperative, and constructive manner.

In fulfilling the obligations of this third principle, the teacher will—

1. Adhere to any reasonable pattern of behavior accepted by the community for professional persons.
2. Perform the duties of citizenship and participate in community activities with due consideration for his obligations to his students, his family, and himself.
3. Discuss controversial issues from an objective point of view, thereby keeping his class free from partisan opinions.
4. Recognize that the public schools belong to the people of the community, encourage lay participation in shaping the purposes of the school, and strive to keep the public informed of the educational program which is being provided.
5. Respect the community in which he is employed and be loyal to the school system, community, state, and nation.
6. Work to improve education in the community and to strengthen the community's moral, spiritual, and intellectual life.

FOURTH PRINCIPLE: The members of the teaching profession have inescapable obligations with respect to employment. These obligations are nearly always shared employer-employee responsibilities based upon mutual respect and good faith.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fourth principle, the teacher will—

1. Conduct professional business through the proper channels.
2. Refrain from discussing confidential and official information with unauthorized persons.
3. Apply for employment on the basis of competence only, and avoid asking for a specific position known to be filled by another teacher.

4. Seek employment in a professional manner, avoiding such practices as the indiscriminate distribution of applications.

5. Refuse to accept a position when the vacancy has been created through unprofessional activity or pending controversy over professional policy or the application of unjust personnel practices and procedures.

6. Adhere to the conditions of a contract until service thereunder has been performed, the contract has been terminated by mutual consent, or the contract has otherwise been legally terminated.

7. Give and expect due notice before a change of position is to be made.

8. Be fair in all recommendations that are given concerning the work of other teachers.

9. Accept no compensation from producers of instructional supplies when one's recommendations affect the local purchase or use of such teaching aids.

10. Engage in no gainful employment, outside of his contract, where the employment affects adversely his professional status or impairs his standing with students, associates, and the community.

11. Cooperate in the development of school policies and assume one's professional obligations thereby incurred.

12. Accept one's obligation to the employing board for maintaining a professional level of service.

FIFTH PRINCIPLE: The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. Community support and respect are influenced by the standards of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching and other teachers.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fifth principle, the teacher will—

1. Deal with other members of the profession in the same manner as he himself wishes to be treated.

2. Stand by other teachers who have acted on his behalf and at his request.

3. Speak constructively of other teachers, but report honestly to responsible persons in matters involving the welfare of students, the school system, and the profession.

4. Maintain active membership in professional organizations and, through participation, strive to attain the objectives that justify such organized groups.

5. Seek to make professional growth continuous by such procedures as study, research, travel, conferences, and attendance at professional meetings.

6. Make the teaching profession so attractive in ideals and practices that sincere and able young people will want to enter it.¹⁵

¹⁵ "New National Education Association Code of Ethics," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 41 (September, 1952), 371-372.

No one can consider himself a worthy member of his profession unless he lives by acceptable standards of professional ethics. In some professions individuals who violate ethical practices are dropped from membership in the professional association or have their right to practice removed. No similarly strict practices have been applied in teaching, but their absence in teaching should not be interpreted as an indication of less need for an equally high code of ethics.

Chapter Summary

Every teacher has a threefold life to live—as a person, as a citizen, and as a professional worker. Although there is no single, typical “teaching personality,” there are certain qualities that all successful teachers must have. A teacher must have a genuine love for children, have a dash of missionary spirit, have certain personal characteristics, and the desire and opportunity to live a normal life. The teacher should engage in normal citizenship activities in the community. On the professional side the teacher (1) should be a well-educated and professionally competent person, (2) should teach school each day to the best of her ability, (3) should keep informed in recent research and modern trends in educational theory and practice, (4) should be an active participant each year in local school-improvement projects, and (5) should stand up for the progress of education.

The following generalizations are to be remembered from this chapter.

1. Teaching in the elementary school requires well-prepared persons who are devoted to a lifetime of service in the field of elementary education.
2. Every teacher should have at least a master's degree.
3. At least one-third to one-half of the teachers in elementary schools should be men.
4. Living a normal personal and civic life is necessary for good adjustment. Since teachers must be well-adjusted persons, they should have full freedom to live normal lives in the community.
5. Strict adherence to high standards of professional ethics is expected of everyone who volunteers to teach.

Recommended Additional Reading

1. *Education for ALL American Children*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States, 1948. Chap. 4, “The Staff.”

2. Millard, C. V., and Albert J. Huggett. *An Introduction to Elementary Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Chap. 4, "Colleagues—Staff and Organization."
3. Richey, Robert W. *Planning for Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Chap. 9, "What Teachers Are Like," Chap. 10, "The Teacher's Work."
4. *Teacher Personnel for Elementary Schools*. Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1952.

Suggested Student Activities

1. From the content of this chapter and the recommended additional readings, prepare an outline of what in your judgment is fundamental to the teacher's personal, civic, and professional life. You might conceive of this outline as a "Charter for the Teacher's Personal, Civic, and Professional Performance."

Evaluate yourself as a potential teacher by checking those characteristics on this list that you feel you have already developed to some extent; also check the characteristics you need to work toward developing.

2. Invite an experienced school superintendent to talk to your class about the qualities and activities that make the most useful faculty members.

3. View one of the following: *What Greater Gift* (Film, 16 mm., sound, color, 28 minutes. National Education Association, Washington, D. C.), *Let's Take a Look at Teaching* (Filmstrip, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan).

PART 5



**An Overview of the Field of
Elementary Education**

2. Millard, C. V., and Albert J. Huggett. *An Introduction to Elementary Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933. Chap. 4, "Colleagues—Staff and Organization."
3. Richey, Robert W. *Planning for Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Chap. 9, "What Teachers Are Like," Chap. 10, "The Teacher's Work."
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Elementary Education**



Elementary Education Today

By now the reader has probably obtained a fairly good picture of elementary education as it is and as it could be in individual school units. He has doubtless related the content in each of the preceding chapters to the particular elementary school with which he is most familiar. Many of the suggested student activities have directed the student to visit elementary schools to observe and to appraise various ideas and practices.

The purpose of the present chapter is to direct the reader's thinking away from the individual school and to lead him to take a generalized view of the whole field of elementary education. Elementary education today finds expression in many individual school units located in all parts of the United States. These schools enroll varying numbers of pupils of different age ranges and taught by teachers working under quite different circumstances. The sections that follow give an overview of the total situation.

Elementary Education in Its Total Setting

Elementary education is simply one phase of education as a whole. Prior to about 1860, before there were many high schools, public schools consisted mostly of elementary schools. The "common schools," as public schools were sometimes called, were elementary schools. The term "common schools" still lingers on in the school laws of many states, although by now high schools are almost as "common" as elementary schools.

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schools encompass both the elementary and the secondary divisions. In fact the nation's objective for a good many years has been a well-articulated, unified twelve-, fourteen-, or sixteen-year program consisting of nursery school and kindergarten, the elementary school, the secondary school, and the junior college. As the ideal of a unified program for the entire period of an individual's schooling is more nearly approximated, it becomes even clearer that the elementary school is an integral part of the school system and that elementary education is simply one phase of education as a whole.

The Five Major Concepts of Education

Education as a vocation. Education as a whole is sometimes considered from five different angles. The first of these five concepts is "education as a vocation." In the very early days of our country, before schools had been established, there were no vocational opportunities in the field of education. However, as soon as schools were established and there arose a need for teachers; that is, for persons who would earn their living by teaching, education became a vocational field. In older countries, the vocation of teaching had existed for centuries and emerged as such here within the first fifty years of the Colonial period. Some vocations, like medicine, dentistry, law, and teaching, are called professions because they require extensive specialized preparation and are characterized by learning and mental, rather than manual, labor.

One of the oldest callings, the vocation of education has risen to a position of notable importance and distinction. Most familiar among the callings associated with education is the vocation of teaching. Instruction has always been the essence of formal education, and the teacher will always continue, and rightfully, to dominate the work of education. Many other callings, however, have become associated with educational service besides the art of teaching. Such, for example, is the work of the superintendent of schools, the school nurse, the school psychologist, the vocational counselor, the statistician, the textbook writer, or the educational journalist. Teaching itself has become so specialized that the traits and preparation necessary for one position, like that of a kindergarten teacher, may be entirely different from those required by, say, a teacher of Latin. More will be said at a later point about the vocational opportunities in the field of elementary education.

Education as a social function. Any society which wants to maintain and perpetuate itself must raise its children so that, in the process of growing up, they will acquire the attitudes, habits, mores, and skills that will enable them to participate satisfyingly and effectively in the ongoing culture of the group and to contribute to its improvement.

Unless children grow up in this fashion, they will not be able to sustain themselves in the culture; in fact, the culture itself will deteriorate or pass out of existence.

Any society, therefore, whether it be found in Africa, Asia, South America, or the United States, must assay its essential elements and aspirations and incorporate these in the education of its young. In primitive societies the education of children is taken care of largely by the informal method of having children tag along and participate with their elders in whatever activities occupy the elders. Children learn by seeing what the elders do and by such advice and directions as the elders give to help them perform their parts more adequately. In more complex societies such incidental instruction becomes increasingly difficult if not impossible. One can readily imagine the difficulties that would be encountered in our own culture today if a physician or a factory worker were to undertake the education of his children, including instruction in reading, arithmetic, and science, by having them accompany him in his daily duties. Complex societies thus find it necessary to devise other ways of educating their children.

In our own culture today the education of children is provided for deliberately as a function of society, just as it has always been, but there are many agencies of education that do not exist in simple societies. At present our society looks mainly to the home, the church, and the school for the education of its children. Their educational function is obviously supplemented by many other agencies and activities, such as the neighborhood and its play groups, the theater, the radio, TV, newspapers and magazines, travel, camp, and the youth-serving agencies. Education today is definitely recognized as a social function, and there is evidence that within the total picture the role of the school is an increasing one.

Education as control and guidance of individual development. If society is to maintain and improve itself, it must be through the efforts of individuals, working alone or in cooperation with others. It is the strength, the health, the talents, the motives and goals, and the proficiencies of individuals that collectively make up the social group. Unless individuals are well intentioned and capable, the group is helpless. It is thus apparent that the development of individuals is paramount in any educational program. If society is to function at its best, each individual child must be helped to develop his abilities and potentialities, regardless of how meager or how generous these may be, to the highest level possible.

Although individual development is the keystone to social welfare, the development of individuals cannot be haphazard. Society is very much concerned with the *kind of people* that make up its membership. What kind of society would we have if half or more than half of the

persons were thieves, murderers, or pyromaniacs? It is highly important, therefore, that individual development be guided along the lines that determine the future welfare of the kind of society that we cherish and for which we strive. Furthermore individual development needs guidance if the child's education is to be appropriately adapted to his talents so that he may achieve greatest satisfaction for himself and make his maximum contribution to society. Guidance along socially desirable lines and for the individual's greatest good involves a certain amount of control over the content and processes of education. We deliberately exclude (if we can) from children's education whatever has been judged undesirable and we deliberately include the essential and desirable.

Education as a school program. As society became increasingly complex or as parents desired their children to have types of education that they were unqualified to give, the problem of educating children became more complex and more difficult. Children needed a greater variety and amount of education than had been necessary in the simpler cultures. The changing nature of the occupational life of adults made it more and more difficult for the home and its associated activities to provide the expanding forms of education necessary. Thus arose the need for some method or agency to fill in the gap. The result was the school; that is, an agency through which persons qualified to give instruction could teach children. In the early days many families who could afford it engaged private tutors for their children, and it was not long before several families cooperated in engaging someone to teach their children. In this manner the beginnings of group instruction and institutionalized schooling were laid, which later developed into our present extensive system of private and public schools.

Since the school has always had a specialized role in providing kinds of training that children could not or did not get through the home or other out-of-school activities, it has had to be selective in its offering. Decisions as to what should be taught, when it should be taught, and to whom it should be taught determined the curriculum or program of the school. In a broader sense the school program includes all the activities and facilities of the school as an educational institution, its studies, its methods, its equipment, its teachers, its organization, in fact everything attached to the work of the school.

As time elapsed and formal schooling became commonplace in our culture, many persons developed the notion that education was synonymous with formal schooling or thought of education as a school program. When we are specifically directing our attention to the school's role in children's education, it is perfectly proper for us to think of education as a school program; but we should not fall into the error

of assuming that a school program is synonymous with or encompasses all of a child's education.

Education as a branch of learning. Nearly everyone regards such subjects as chemistry, physics, history, botany, anthropology, and mathematics as fields of knowledge or as branches of learning. As a result of long years of scholarly effort in research and writing, they have achieved an organization of subject matter, acquired a large body of knowledge, and developed research techniques peculiarly appropriate for validating and extending knowledge in their respective fields. Anyone wishing to be sufficiently well informed to be a scholar in any one of these branches of learning would have to spend many years in arduous study.

Education as a branch of learning is much younger than the fields previously named. Within the last eighty years, however, education has made remarkable strides as a distinct field for study and investigation. At present the literature and research in education are almost as extensive as those in any other branch of learning. Its subject matter deals with every known aspect of education and includes such a wide range of topics as school-board organization and membership, school organization and management, the school plant, the pupil population, curriculum and methods, child study, educational psychology; special services such as health, library, attendance, and guidance; school finance, state school administration, and federal aid and relations to education. At present practically all leading colleges and universities offer a series of courses in different phases of education and grant specialized bachelors', master's, and doctors' degrees in education. Practically every state now requires candidates for teaching certificates to pass examinations in the subject matter of education or to present evidence of having earned credits in education courses in an institution of college grade.

The field of elementary education itself has an extensive body of literature and research data covering such topics as the organization and management of schools, the curriculum, psychology of elementary school subjects, mental and educational measurement, methods of teaching, grade placement of subject matter and activities, individual differences among pupils, child study and pupil adjustment, school and community relations, and education of exceptional children. These are but a few of a long list of topics and problems of concern to those who are responsible for leadership and teaching in elementary education. The authors' main purpose in writing this book was to give the beginning student an introduction to elementary education as one phase of that branch of learning called education.

What is elementary education? Elementary education embodies

all five of the basic concepts of education. It is a vocational field because many persons have chosen it as a life calling and as a means of earning a livelihood. It is a social function since society is deeply concerned with children's education during the age period when pupils attend elementary schools. It is a control and guidance of individual development because the education of elementary school pupils is a planned, deliberate, carefully guided effort to assist pupils in acquiring certain attitudes, habits, mores, and proficiencies and to aid each pupil to discover and develop his individual talents. Elementary education embodies a school program since definite plans, content, and facilities are necessary in order that the school may discharge its role in children's education. Elementary education must be a branch of learning in order that those responsible for the work of elementary schools may proceed intelligently with it.

Frequently students as well as laymen think of elementary education as consisting of that which happens at school. Obviously, this is a narrower view and embodies only three of the basic concepts of education: education as a social function, as control and guidance of individual development, and as a school program. Under this narrower definition elementary education is concerned with the formal schooling of children from the time they start school until they enter the junior or four-year high school. In communities in which nursery schools, kindergartens, and junior high schools are maintained, elementary education involves children from the age of two or three to about twelve. In communities that have no nursery schools but do have kindergartens, the beginning age would be four or five. Where junior high schools do not exist, the concluding age for elementary school pupils would be about fourteen years. In general, one may say that elementary education is concerned with the presecondary schooling of children.

The major purpose of the elementary school is to promote the wholesome, well-rounded growth and development of children in the direction of the purposes of education in American democracy. All types of growth—physical, mental, emotional, social—are equally important. Provision will be made for types of activities and experiences through which children may progress, each in accordance with his ability and level of maturity, toward all the objectives of education. As children engage in these activities, ample consideration will be given to mental hygiene, personality development, and social adjustment.

In addition to furnishing educative experiences appropriately adapted to each age level, the school will concern itself with providing a physical environment that safeguards and promotes the health and safety of the children and that stimulates and facilitates their educative

experiences. The school will also concern itself with the welfare of children so as to reduce to a minimum the interferences with normal growth and development. To this end the school and the community are joined in a cooperative enterprise.

The curriculum is conceived of as the sum total of activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. The activities that comprise the curriculum will be planned cooperatively by teachers, pupils, and others who participate in them so that maximum advantage may be taken of children's interests and so that maximum learning may take place in realistic problem-solving situations. The organization of the school will make possible closely articulated and continuous pupil progress from the time the child enters the elementary school until he has reached the age appropriate for admission to the secondary school. The typical elementary school is a nonspecialized institution in that it offers the same type of training to all throughout the period of attendance. The amount, the exact nature of, and the rate at which the training will be administered are adjusted to the abilities of the pupils. Hence the degrees of achievement, or the degree of progress the pupils will have made in the various types of work or activities designed to lead to the ultimate goals, will differ widely at the time the pupils are ready to enter the period of secondary education. The elementary school is truly a school for "all the children of all the people."

Children in Elementary Schools

Formal schooling for elementary pupils in the United States is a vast enterprise. In 1950 the total enrollment in kindergarten and elementary grades in public and private schools in the continental United States was 22,245,470. In addition there were at least 97,000 pupils enrolled in residential, college campus, and federal schools, and several thousand children were in nursery schools. Tables 7 and 8 provide the details for public schools by states and by grades. Out of the total 22,245,470 children enrolled, 1,034,203 were in public school kindergartens and 133,000 in private kindergartens, 18,370,490 in public and 2,707,777 in private (and parochial) elementary schools.

From 1890 to 1950 the enrollment in public and private kindergartens and elementary grades more than doubled.¹ It is estimated that during 1951 there were approximately 3,044,000 five-year-olds in this country yet only about one-third of the children of kindergarten age were being provided with kindergarten experiences. Today all states but one authorize (but do not compel) local school systems to

¹ See "What Does Crowding Do?" *Childhood Education*, 30 (April, 1954), 351-76.

provide kindergartens for young children. Two-thirds of the states supplement local school funds with funds provided by the state. At present kindergarten enrollments are the highest in the history of public education.

The statistics just cited about elementary school enrollments stagger the imagination of persons who have become accustomed to the size of groups one ordinarily sees in churches, theaters, or typical elementary schools. From the standpoint of number of persons involved, elementary education is the largest single enterprise in the United States.

TABLE 7

Enrollment in Kindergarten and Elementary Grades in Public Day Schools in 1949-1950, Arranged by States

Alabama	555,892	Nevada	19,525
Arizona	111,557	New Hampshire	53,316
Arkansas	328,804	New Jersey	495,140
California	1,357,933	New Mexico	121,496
Colorado	176,697	New York	1,457,855
Connecticut	209,757	North Carolina	703,698
Delaware	35,325	North Dakota	87,809
Florida	353,241	Ohio	916,706
Georgia	571,329	Oklahoma	339,797
Idaho	91,232	Oregon	188,786
Illinois	871,072	Pennsylvania	1,142,327
Indiana	524,208	Rhode Island	71,308
Iowa	364,942	South Carolina	415,146
Kansas	260,868	South Dakota	88,577
Kentucky	467,159	Tennessee	539,445
Louisiana	399,634	Texas	1,078,453
Maine	124,058	Utah	114,917
Maryland	269,911	Vermont	49,224
Massachusetts	453,852	Virginia	497,563
Michigan	809,887	Washington	308,870
Minnesota	358,736	West Virginia	348,561
Mississippi	446,683	Wisconsin	355,764
Missouri	499,126	Wyoming	46,004
Montana	79,864	District of Columbia	74,576
Nebraska	168,063	Total	19,404,693

Source: *Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-1950*, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1949-1950 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1952), Chap. 2, pp. 47-49.



"Where am I going to put them?"

TABLE 8

Enrollment in Public Elementary Schools in 1949-1950,
Arranged by Grades

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Number of Pupils</i>
Kindergarten	1,034,203
First	3,170,343
Second	2,644,707
Third	2,395,904
Fourth	2,254,028
Fifth	2,150,678
Sixth	2,055,741
Seventh	1,947,227
Eighth	1,751,862
Total	<u>19,404,693</u>

Source: *Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-1950*, p. 46.

Elementary Schools

Schools for young children must be located near enough to where the children live so that they do not have to walk excessive distances or spend too much time on school buses. As a rule, schools should be near enough to the child's home so that a child in the elementary school does not have to walk more than a mile and a half to or from school or have to ride on a bus longer than sixty minutes each way. This problem of distance has necessitated the establishment of many separate schools and the creation of many school districts to administer them. Originally in the United States, when elementary education was the only or the most common form of public education, there was a school district for practically every school. Later, as cities grew in size, several elementary schools were erected in different parts of the same city without creating new school districts. Usually the geographical expansion of the city and the school district moved along at about the same pace so that, as the school district increased in size and population, the number of elementary schools within the district increased in number and in enrollment. This evolution followed different courses in different cities, but in general the changes and net results were similar. Thus it came about that by 1951 the school district of New York City operated 594 elementary schools ranging in enrollment from 31 to 2,977 pupils, and Chicago in 1951 operated 357 elementary schools ranging in enrollment from 224 to 2,787. Because of entirely different forces and movements, many contiguous school districts in all sections of the United States consolidated or united into one district. In some cases suburban areas near large cities joined the city district; in other cases two or more districts in rural areas consolidated. The latter types of reorganization are commonly known as "consolidated districts," although technically speaking the same descriptive title could be applied to the union of two city districts or that of a city and a suburban area.

Consolidation always reduces the number of school districts, and in rural areas consolidation usually results in closing one or more of the smaller schools and in transporting the pupils to larger centralized schools. It is this process of consolidation and centralization that has gradually reduced the number of school districts and the number of elementary schools. Thus the total number of school districts in the United States decreased from about 111,273 in 1944 to 83,237 in 1950 and to 66,472 by 1953. The number of one-teacher rural schools decreased from about 96,302 in 1944 to 59,652 in 1950.

There are no adequate nation-wide statistics on the number of

elementary schools. National statistics are usually gathered in terms of school systems or school districts rather than in terms of number of schools or school buildings of each type. In 1944 the United States Office of Education reported 169,905 public elementary schools. By 1950 the total number of public elementary schools had decreased to 128,225. If to this number of public elementary schools are added the more than 10,375 private and parochial schools, it is probably safe to estimate that at present elementary school children are being served in approximately 140,000 different schools scattered throughout the United States.

Another angle from which to view public elementary schools is their geographical location. The United States census classifies as urban all "incorporated places of 2,500 population or more." Rural areas include all the open farm country and incorporated towns and villages of less than 2,500 population. Mention has already been made of the fact that in 1950 there were 59,652 one-teacher schools and that the number of consolidated districts had been increasing year by year; most of the consolidated districts were in rural areas. The proportion of one-teacher schools to all elementary schools varied greatly by states. The percentage that one-teacher schools were of all elementary schools in the respective states in 1948 ranged from 7.3 in Massachusetts to 96.9 in Iowa. It is likely that at present over two-thirds of the total number of elementary schools are in rural areas. In 1950 there were about half as many children five to seventeen years of age in rural areas as in urban areas. However, the total school enrollment was considerably larger in urban than in rural areas. Rural children do not attend school as regularly nor stay in school as long as urban children. About half of the teachers in the United States teach in rural areas. Seven per cent of all elementary teachers taught in one-teacher schools in 1950. The 1951-1952 government reports showed an average salary of \$2,484.00 for rural teachers, of \$3,808.00 for urban teachers, and of \$3,365.00 for all public school teachers. City teachers have tenure in twenty states, while rural teachers have tenure in only fifteen states. Elementary education is as much a rural as a city enterprise.

Seventeen states and the District of Columbia have always maintained separate schools for the Negro race. On May 17, 1954, by unanimous decision, the Supreme Court ruled that racial segregation in public schools of the several states is unconstitutional. In a separate opinion segregation in the public schools of the District of Columbia was also declared unconstitutional. In 1950 there were 2,058,914 Negro pupils enrolled in the kindergarten through eight grades in the seventeen states and the District of Columbia where separate schools were maintained for Negroes and Whites. Readjustment will be extremely

TABLE 9

Enrollment of Negro Pupils by Grades in Seventeen Southern States and the District of Columbia, and the Percentage Distribution of School Population, 1949-1950

State	Total	Kindergarten	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade	Fourth Grade	Fifth Grade	Sixth Grade	Seventh Grade	Eighth Grade	Percentage Distribution of School Population	
											White	Negro
Total	2,058,917	14,218	466,099	288,179	270,643	258,969	232,212	206,173	180,369	142,252	89	11
Alabama	206,989		46,432	28,430	27,104	26,060	23,294	21,377	18,676	15,616	63	37
Arkansas	89,035		22,586	11,461	11,366	10,834	10,037	8,814	7,516	6,421	73	27
Delaware	6,954	123	1,193	1,005	955	839	759	771	703	606	80	20
Florida	97,508	128	17,753	14,258	13,312	12,837	11,739	10,472	9,216	7,793	73	27
Georgia	215,985	502	55,678	33,270	30,356	28,988	24,819	21,093	17,571	3,708	62	38
Kentucky	30,418	774	5,333	4,050	3,870	3,697	3,510	3,171	3,213	2,800	94	6
Louisiana	162,513	1,197	36,193	24,606	22,497	20,972	18,563	15,722	12,640	10,123	59	41
Maryland	62,301	2,779	9,447	8,750	8,323	8,794	7,435	6,411	5,582	4,780	77	23
Mississippi	243,800		79,146	31,549	30,011	27,999	24,254	20,251	16,649	13,941	45	55
Missouri	46,678	3,358	9,052	5,718	5,700	5,402	5,111	4,597	4,220	3,420	93	7
N. Carolina	222,811		41,903	31,435	29,796	28,667	26,449	23,790	21,623	19,148	68	32
Oklahoma	29,675	567	5,787	3,552	3,546	3,282	3,392	3,269	3,261	3,019	91	9
S. Carolina	196,860		47,454	28,574	25,971	24,410	21,286	18,986	17,042	13,137	52	48
Tennessee	88,806		16,303	12,548	11,933	11,102	10,477	9,840	8,850	7,663	84	16
Texas	165,881	150	34,886	22,266	21,519	20,625	19,201	17,738	15,530	13,966	86	14
Virginia	135,844		27,515	19,165	17,231	17,721	15,816	13,923	12,213	10,418	71	29
W. Virginia	19,619	1,842	3,371	2,727	2,557	2,416	2,322	2,207	2,041	1,978	94	6
Dist. of Columbia	37,237	2,798	6,067	4,815	4,596	4,234	3,748	3,741	3,823	3,415	50	50

* Sources: Adapted from Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-1950, p. 102.

complicated.² Regardless of the time allowed for carrying out the final decree, boards of education and school administrators in the seventeen states and the District of Columbia where segregation has been mandatory and the four other states where it has been permissive face some difficult decisions. Some states, such as Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana, and the District of Columbia, have large proportions of Negro school children with 55, 48, 41 and 50 per cent of the total school population respectively. Table 9 gives the details concerning the Negro pupils enrolled in what were formerly segregated states.

A consideration of schools for elementary pupils should take cognizance of special schools for exceptional children. By 1940 every state and the District of Columbia had established special residential schools for the socially maladjusted youth, there being a total of 112 such schools; in addition there were 29 county and municipal schools for the socially handicapped. Also, by 1940, every state had made some provision for the institutionalization of its feeble-minded and every state had made arrangements for the education of its deaf and its blind children in residential schools either within the state or in neighboring states. Data for 1947 revealed, for the blind, 56 schools in 43 states with 5,235 pupils; for the deaf, 81 schools in 47 states with 13,123 pupils; for the mentally deficient, 140 schools in 47 states with 21,562 pupils; for the epileptic, 10 schools in 10 states with 1,096 pupils; and for the delinquent, 167 schools in 48 states and the District of Columbia with 22,745 pupils. In addition to the 64,000 children enrolled in 450 schools of various types there were at least 20,000 children in cities receiving instruction in homes or hospitals.³

So far the discussion has dealt mostly with public schools. The picture of elementary schools would be incomplete without mention of private and parochial schools. In the report for the year 1949-1950 the United States Office of Education reported 2,707,777 children enrolled in schools operated by various religious groups or in privately operated nonsectarian elementary schools.

Professional Opportunities in Elementary Education

Earlier in this chapter mention was made of education as a vocation that had achieved the status of a profession. The field of elementary education provides several types of professional opportunities. In-creas-

² "Let's Face Issues of Discrimination," *Educational Leadership*, 12 (November, 1954) 66-113.

³ *Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children*, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-1948 (Washington: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Chap. 5.

ing attention to children's health and physical development has led to the appointment on the school staff of such persons as nurses, physicians, dentists, dietitians, and special teachers or supervisors of health and physical education. The child-study movement has brought into the schools such specialized personnel as psychologists, psychiatrists, directors or supervisors of research and measurements, visiting teachers and teachers of handicapped children. Some school systems have special teachers or supervisors of music, art, and handwriting.

There are no nation-wide data on how many persons occupy these various specialized positions in the elementary field, but it is obvious that their number is small compared with the larger group of classroom teachers, principals, and supervisors.

Classroom teachers constitute the largest single group of professional workers in elementary education. Statistics on the professional staff in public schools have not always been kept separate for elementary and high schools, so that the number of classroom teachers in elementary schools must be arrived at by approximation. In 1870 there were 200,000 classroom teachers in the public elementary and secondary schools in this country; by 1944 this number had increased to 928,638, and by 1953 to 1,028,899 teachers. About 66 per cent, or 680,175, of all teachers teach in the elementary school. Even though there has been a slight increase in the number of men entering the elementary field, it is estimated that about 86 per cent of the elementary teachers are women.

Besides classroom teaching there are two other fairly large groups of positions in elementary education: positions as principals or supervisors of elementary schools. In 1950 there were 39,314 school principals, of whom about 25,000 were assigned to the elementary school. Some of these have full-time or part-time classroom teaching assignments in addition to their administrative duties; others are full-time supervising principals. In the same year 9,189 supervisors were also employed in the public schools. The figures did not indicate what proportion of these were general or special supervisors in elementary or secondary schools, but again it may be assumed that the majority worked in the elementary field.

College graduates trained in elementary education find no difficulty today in securing employment; in fact, the demand far exceeds the supply of specialized elementary teachers. In 1953 new teachers added to the elementary schools totaled 73,771 or 10.8 per cent of all the elementary teachers in service.⁴ Due to the increased demand for

⁴ *The 1954 Teacher Supply and Demand Report*, Report of the Seventh Annual National Teacher Supply and Demand Study, Reprinted from *The Journal of Teacher Education*, March, 1954, pp. 3-23. Prepared by the N.E.A. Research Division for National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (Washington: National Education Association of the United States), p. 5.

that direction since 1951.⁶ It is becoming increasingly clear that the states with the highest standards tend to attract and hold the teachers with the strongest qualifications and, conversely, the states with the lowest standards are required to draw most extensively upon the available persons who cannot meet even the most meager standards.⁷

While all states now require every person in an educational position in the public schools to hold a certificate authorizing her to perform that particular service, only four states require teachers in private and parochial schools to hold certificates. However, most of the states refuse to accredit these schools unless the teachers are properly certificated.

In addition to the strictly professional requirements, each state has personal standards: twenty-five states require a health certificate; twenty-nine require United States citizenship or at least the filing of first papers; and thirty require an oath of allegiance.

Minimum legal requirements for certification are usually just what the term implies: the minimum that the state as a governing agency has established as the qualifications for persons legally designated as teachers of children. Many communities, however, insist that better-educated persons be in charge of their children's schooling. This desire for better-prepared teachers has led many school systems to establish standards for initial appointment that are higher than the legal minimums. A research study published in 1951 showed the number of years of educational preparation beyond high school graduation required for initial appointment as a teacher in the elementary schools in cities of various size throughout the United States.⁸ The study included information from a total of 1,545 cities representing six population groups. Table 10 shows the percentages of cities for each group requiring the various amounts of training, as well as the percentages for all cities. It is thus clearly evident that throughout the country, even in the smaller cities, the people and the school boards are no longer satisfied with the legal minimum requirements for certification. Undoubtedly this public sentiment for better-prepared teachers will soon induce the legislatures of states that now have very low requirements to raise them to the higher levels already required in the laws of other states. It is likely that in the not-too-distant future the laws of many states will require five years of college preparation for initial certification of inexperienced applicants.

The fact that standards for certification and appointment have

⁶ *Higher Education*, Monthly Publication of the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, U. S. Office of Education, Higher Education Division, X, No. 8 (April, 1954), 124-125.

⁷ *The 1954 Teacher Supply and Demand Report*, pp. 6-7.

⁸ "Teacher Personnel Practices, 1950-51: Appointment and Termination of Service," *Research Bulletin* (N.E.A.), 30, No. 1 (February, 1952), 9.

TABLE 10
Educational Requirements for Appointment as Teachers, 1951

Number of Years of Preparation Required beyond High School Graduation, for Teaching in Elementary School	500,000 and over Group I Cities	100,000- 499,999 Group II Cities	30,000- 99,999 Group III Cities	10,000- 29,999 Group IV Cities	5,000- 9,999 Group V Cities	2,500- 4,999 Group VI Cities	Total	
							Number	Per Cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
One year	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	•	2	•
Two years	0	7	8	14	20	27%	281	18%
Three years	0	4	4	6	9	11	122	8
Four years	100	88	88	80	71	62	1,136	74
Five years or more	0	1	0	0	•	•	4	•
Number of cities reporting	16	76	225	333	379	516	—	100%
							1,545	—

* Less than 1 per cent.

Source: Adapted from Table 5 of "Teacher Personnel Practices, 1950-1951: Appointment and Termination of Service," Research Bulletin, National Education Association of the United States, 20, No. 1 (February, 1952), 9. Reprinted by permission.

gradually been raised should not mislead one into assuming that all teachers in elementary schools possess a bachelor's or a master's degree. Many of these persons started teaching years ago when the requirements were much lower, and many still receive certificates in states in which the legal requirements are low. Also, teachers with minimum qualifications are continuing to teach in school districts that are satisfied to accept the legal minimum requirements in their states. On the other hand many teachers started teaching with only the minimum qualifications but have attended colleges in the summer or have taken extension or correspondence courses since then so that they have gradually improved their qualifications. The professional preparation of teachers now in service thus presents a constantly changing picture.

In 1948 a study of the situation for the country as a whole showed that 12.7 per cent of all teachers had had less than 60 hours of college credit, that 27.9 per cent had from 60 to 119 hours, and that 59.4 had 120 or more hours. By 1954, the data for 34 states showed that the per cents had improved some, reading 6.4, 28.1, and 65.5.*

The majority of principals and supervisors hold bachelors' or masters' degrees; some of them have obtained doctors' degrees. New appointments to these positions are usually limited at present to persons who have achieved at least the master's degree.

It is true that higher standards are conducive to a better supply of qualified candidates, but higher standards also go hand in hand with higher salaries, better working conditions, democratic administration, strong sick leave and retirement provisions, resourceful and dynamic state and local professional associations, desirable living and social conditions, and—last but not least—an established prestige that brings to the teacher a respected place in the affairs and life of the community.*

Salaries of Elementary School Personnel

The salaries of professional workers in elementary schools vary a great deal from state to state. There are also important differences in teachers' salaries between urban and rural areas. The true value of these differences can be determined only after one has made due allowance for the differences in the cost of living. In 1952-1953 the average annual salary of instructional staff members (including teachers, principals, supervisors, and other members of the instructional staff) for the United States as a whole was \$3,392.00, which represents a significant increase over the corresponding average of \$1,728.00 in 1944.

* "Analysis of Preparation of Elementary School Teachers," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 5 (March, 1954), p. 5.

* *The 1954 Teacher Supply and Demand Report, loc. cit.*

A study completed in 1953 showed the distribution of salaries of the instructional staff in 2,647 out of 3,866 school systems in cities with a population of 2,500 and over.¹⁰ In that year the median salaries of classroom teachers in elementary schools ranged from \$3,118.00 in cities with a population of 2,500 to 5,000 to \$4,817.00 in cities of more than 500,000 population. The median salaries of elementary school supervising principals ranged from \$4,388.00 in cities with a population of 2,500 to 5,000 to \$7,305.00 in cities with more than 500,000 population. When individual salaries rather than medians were considered, the same study showed that individual salaries of classroom teachers in elementary schools ranged from less than \$1,200.00 to \$6,600.00. The individual salaries of supervising principals ranged from below \$2,400.00 to \$9,500.00. In general, as one might expect, individual salaries vary in accordance with amount of experience and professional preparation. Most school systems in cities have developed salary schedules that provide equal pay for elementary school and secondary school teachers of equal preparation and experience.

Provisions for Tenure

The teaching profession has long been interested in promoting the adoption of tenure laws or regulations that would define the conditions under which teachers could expect to have continuity of employment. One of the important features of such legislation is that it protects the teacher against unfair practices of unscrupulous groups or individuals in a community and assures the teacher the right to discuss freely and objectively all issues and problems.

By 1954 all except nine states had some legislation on the duration of the term of employment; however, only seventeen states provided state-wide tenure by law. Tenure laws of fifteen other states applied to specified parts of the state; for example, in New York certain rural districts were excluded, in Oregon and nine other states tenure applied only to certain large cities. Tenure was optional with the smaller districts, but compulsory in larger districts in California, Colorado, and Ohio. The Michigan tenure law was state-wide in application but depended upon local adoption before it became effective and was, therefore, not included in the category of state-wide laws.¹¹

One of the best guarantees of job security is a job well done.

¹⁰ "Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1952-1953," *Research Bulletin* (N.E.A.), Vol. 31, No. 2.

¹¹ *Analysis of Teacher Tenure Provisions: State and Local* (Washington Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, National Education Association of the United States, May, 1954), p. 12.

of a state retirement plan in all states. Finally elementary education offers a variety of opportunities for a lifetime of service in socially significant work that is a continuous challenge and offers a continuous flow of personal and professional satisfactions.

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4. Millard, C. V. and Albert J. Huggert. *An Introduction to Elementary Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Chap. 10, "Standards and Professional Status," Chap. 11, "Teacher Preparation and Certification," Chap. 14, "Securing a Certificate."

Suggested Student Activities

1. In the library you will probably find a copy of the latest annual or biennial report of the state department of education in your state. Look up the number of elementary school pupils, the number of elementary school teachers, and the number of school districts in your state.

2. In the library you will probably find a copy of the last edition of the school laws in your state. Determine whether your state has teacher-tenure and teacher-retirement laws and, if so, what their provisions are. Also determine what types of state certificates are issued to elementary school teachers and the minimum requirements for each type of certificate.

3. In schools you know inquire about provision made for the education of exceptional children.

4. Prepare a brief talk suitable for a high school or college future teachers club. Explain the points that should be considered in choosing elementary school teaching as a vocation.

5. Ask your local placement service office about the demand for elementary teachers.

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CHAPTER 2

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